

International Bank Note Society Journal



The Bank Notes of Somalia — Part I... page 6

Volume 45, No. 1, 2006



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Sold for £32,200



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I.B.N.S. Journal

Volume 45, No. 1, 2006

Editor, Steve Feller

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President's Message

Dear Members,

'Isolation' is a word that has frequently occurred to me as I undertook my career in bank note collecting. While I have been fortunate to have been involved in numerous activities with members of the Sydney, Melbourne and Perth chapters of the I.B.N.S. over many years, I have largely put my collection together and taken an interest in paper money while physically isolated from other collectors.

I know of many instances where bank note collectors have had very little opportunity to meet other bank note collectors, due to their physical isolation. Collectors who are in regular and frequent contact with other collectors should consider themselves fortunate, as isolation is a handicap faced by many collectors throughout the world.

While modern communication has increased the opportunity to make contact with collectors of similar interests, there is nothing quite like meeting another collector with similar interests and talking face to face. I have been fortunate enough to recently attend the Paper Money Show at Maastricht and there I met a number of collectors with whom I had never met, but with whom I have communicated for some years. Other collectors that I met I had encountered only once or twice before.

However, for many collectors, the opportunity to meet other collectors remains limited and, in many instances, if they do meet another collector they rarely find someone who has the same specific collecting interest as themselves. In our ever-changing world, the I.B.N.S. remains a means whereby collectors can discover other collectors with similar interests and establish long-term relationships, even if they never get to meet their correspondents. Isolation remains a burden for many collectors and those who regularly meet other collectors should never forget how lucky they are to meet other collectors.

For those collectors who suffer isolation, you are not alone and I trust that the I.B.N.S. continues to offer services that enhance your collecting interests and that the Society remains of significant assistance as your collection grows.

Peter Symes
President



Editor's Column



I had the pleasure of meeting with the East Midlands I.B.N.S. group for one of their bimonthly club meetings. It was marvellous. Lawrence Pope gave a splendid

bank notes overview from his "cruise series." There were about a dozen of us enjoying banknotes. See the group photo below.

I shortly return to the United States after four months abroad. Science by its very nature is international and this has been reconfirmed once again for me as I visited four English Universities and a Greek Research Institute. I would submit that bank note collecting is also of a similar character. We have much to learn from one another.

On a brief one week visit to the states in late February I made a point of meeting Rachel at the MPCFEST in Port Clinton, Ohio. This is a weekend of total immersion into banknotes just for the fun of it. More than 60 attended. The poker fest, held in fest money of course, had two Fellers in the top spots with Ray winning first place and a \$7000 bond in fest money.

I look forward to my annual trek to the midsouth; namely the Memphis show. This year it will be held from June 16-18 and I highly recommend it to you. I guarantee you will enjoy your hobby more. Please greet me there. My picture is with this column so you will know what I look like.

Best Regards,

Steve Feller
Editor



East Midlands I.B.N.S. Meeting,
January 2006

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Letters to the Editor

Dear Editor,

I refer to the excellent and well-written articles by Rachel Feller, but feel one point could justify a little expanding in her article "A Souvenir from France." She wrote "After a short while, the Supplementary French Franc Currency was protested by General Charles de Gaulle, who felt that France was not consulted fully in the making of the money."

She is being more than a little polite to de Gaulle! He was not consulted period. It was not "a short while" it was about 2 seconds after he saw one of the notes. He went into a rage and declared that no one but a Frenchman had the right to use the Tricolor Flag and that the notes were a lie because they were not "Emis is France" (issued in France) but in England to U.S.A., British, Canadian and other forces

More importantly, he threatened to order the citizens of France not to accept these notes at all. While the Supreme Commander of Allied Forces, Eisenhower, responded with a terse "Tell him to go to hell" and issued the notes, his political master in the U.S.A. decided on a more diplomatic response by agreeing to delete the flag from the next issue of notes.

Churchill was very sympathetic to the Americans over the matter as de Gaulle had been a thorn in his side throughout the war and he once said of de Gaulle "He's my Cross of Lorraine!"

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Dear Editor,

I would like to report a new date for the British Honduras \$10 (Pick 31a), this dated 1.1.1958 with serial #F/1-14001. It is perhaps the earliest recorded British Honduras \$10 of Queen Elizabeth II.

Up until now the earliest date in my collection was the \$10 of 1.10.1958, serial #F/1-025707.

There is an early QEII \$20 dated 1.12.1952 (Pick 32a). Mine is #E/1-007111 and in awful condition. That is followed by an issue dated 1.10.1958, mine #E/1-010407. You can see the very low numbers printed for the early dates of QEII \$10 and \$20 in British Honduras.

It is likely that an even earlier date for the \$10 QEII Pick-31a exists, between 1952 and 1958. I would welcome information from members which will help fill in these early B.H. issues.

Kind regards

Milt Blackburn, I.B.N.S. LM-18
Box 33888, Station "D"
Vancouver, B.C., Canada V6J 4L6

Dear Editor,

50 dinara Serbian banknote forgery

Sometimes there is doubt about whether or not a bank note is a government-sponsored forgery. For instance, there is the case of the alleged United States government forgery of the Serbia 50 dinara Serbian National bank note of 1 May 1942. I first ran across a brick of about 100 of these bank notes about 1990. The seller was the wife of a deceased WWII airman

who claimed that the bank notes were government forgeries issued to her husband when he flew over Yugoslavia. He was to use them to bribe the locals and pay for supplies if he was shot down. There was no proof of such an operation so I never quite believed the story.

Recently another such note was offered for sale, once again from the estate of a deceased airman, but from another part of the country. The background story was exactly the same. So, although we cannot say for sure that these bank notes were prepared by the OSS or some other clandestine agency to be used by downed pilots, we can say that there is some interesting circumstantial evidence.

The alleged forgeries are of excellent quality. In the initial offering the bank notes had the red serial numbers M.0234 / 101 to M.0234 / 200. The more recent bank note had the serial number M.0234 / 499, which indicates that it is from the same general printing. One of the very minor differences I noted between the genuine and forged bank notes are in the issue date on the face, "MAJ 1942," in which the crossbar in the "A" is slanted in the genuine and perfectly horizontal in the forgery and the number "9" which is broken slightly in the genuine and perfectly smooth in the forgery. There is a small box at the bottom of the back of the note and in it the first cyrillic letter has a break at the bottom left of the letter "ehf," — whereas the letter is perfect in the genuine.

Herb Friedman, I.B.N.S. #4374
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The Bank Notes of Somalia — Part I

by Peter Symes, I.B.N.S. #4245

This is a study of the bank notes issued in Somalia from colonial times to the fractured period after 1991. Principally, this study describes the bank notes and provides as much of the historical background to the issue of the bank notes as is possible. Records on the issue of currency in Somalia, in its various forms, is not plentiful. However, sufficient detail has been located to tell of the ordinary and extraordinary facts surrounding the various issues. The history of Somalia and its note issuing authorities is not simple, therefore it is wise to know a little of Somalia's history prior to describing the bank note issues.

A Short History

Somali people have inhabited the Horn of Africa for thousands of years and the areas of their occupation, with several exceptions, is today known as Somalia. Despite the great length of time in which the Somali people have inhabited the Horn of Africa, there have been significant migratory patterns that have displaced and rearranged the clan structures within the area. Prior to the modern era, Somalia had a history of rule by various Somali clans, although there were times when other powers pressed their influence. The Ethiopians and Egyptians at time held sway in areas of Somalia and the Sultans of Muscat and Zanzibar also held significant control of the coastal ports for many years. Ultimately, European influence exerted itself in this region, with the two dominant powers being Great Britain and Italy.

The British government's first interest in Somalia was the Somali coast opposite Aden. The colony of Aden had been acquired in 1839 and, following the opening of the Suez canal in 1869, Aden became Britain's

principal *entrepôt* between Europe and the Far East. Although Aden was attractive for its port facilities, it lacked a reliable meat supply. Therefore, trade was established with the coastal tribes of Somalia to provide meat and, ultimately, in 1887 Britain formalized its influence in this area by creating the Somaliland Protectorate. The creation of the protectorate not only secured a supply of food for Aden, it also thwarted the aspirations of the Egyptians and the French who had shown interest in the region.

A British trading company, the British East Africa Company, had earlier established agreements with Somali people on the eastern coast of Somalia in 1827. Later, Italian influence resulted in numerous spheres of influence being established along the Benadir Coast. The Italians took over concessions from the British East Africa Company and leased ports through the Sultan of Zanzibar. Over time their influence was consolidated and finally Italian Somaliland became an Italian colony in 1905.

Italian Somaliland came under British control during World War II, but in 1950 it was handed back to the Italians as a United Nations Trust Territory. Under the arrangements by which Italy ran the Trust Territory, the former colony was to become independent in ten years. In July 1960 not only did the Trust Territory become independent, it was unified with British Somaliland, which had become independent only days earlier.

This unification was seen by many as the first stage of a completely unified Somali nation. Most African nations are an amalgamation of a number of tribal and ethnic mixes. This occurs primarily because the boundaries of each nation are based on former spheres of influence of

European colonial powers, rather than on tribal allegiances and racial mixes. Somalia is distinct in that only Somalis live in Somalia. However, prior to independence, the entire Somali people lived in five different areas: Italian Somaliland, British Somaliland, Djibouti (known at times as French Somaliland or Afars and Issas), Ogaden (a region of Ethiopia), and the Northern Frontier District of Kenya. A significant Somali emblem is a five-pointed star that appears on the Somali flag. The five-pointed star is the symbol of unity for Somalis from all five areas in which Somalis were divided and it was the aim of many Somalis that, one day, all Somalis would be united as one nation.

Independent Somalia's future as a democratic nation was unsteady for some years, although much progress was achieved by the fledgling nation. In 1969 the army took control through a coup led by Major General Siad Barre. The country was then led by the Somali Revolutionary Council, of which Siad Barre was the chairman, and the council duly elected Siad Barre as President. Introducing 'Scientific Socialism,' the country adopted a socialist platform and stumbled forward.

Following the overthrow of Ethiopia's Haile Selassie in 1974, a number of Somali opposition political parties, that were agitating for the reclamation of the Ogaden from Ethiopia, became more active. After Djibouti became independent from France in June 1977, the nationalist elements in Somalia launched attacks on Ethiopia and thus commenced a war for the Ogaden. The war was fought by elements not directly associated with the Somali government, but the government gave support to the insurgents. Ultimately the war was lost, as Somalia had gained no friends in the international community; indeed



This 50-lire note was part of the emission for Africa Orientale Italiana, which consisted of Somalia, Ethiopia and Eritrea.



The back of the 50-lire note of Africa Orientale Italiana.

they lost the significant support of the Soviet Union which transferred their patronage to Ethiopia.

Failure to win the Ogaden war led to the splintering of support for Siad Barre and, over the next ten years, backing for the president in a number of regions was corroded by clan-based political parties. Despite reconciliation between the Somali and Ethiopian governments, the internal status of Somalia was growing grim. The clans that Siad Barre supported during the Ogaden war now turned against him and ultimately forced him to flee Mogadishu in 1991.

Following the fall of Siad Barre, Somalia fell into a maelstrom of struggles for influence, both political and economic. No single clan or group of clans could gain control and attempts by the United Nations to intervene during the 1990s proved fruitless. A civil war based around Mogadishu saw thousands die and tens of thousands of Somalis flee the country and seek refuge overseas. The former British Protectorate broke away and established itself as a separate country called 'Somaliland,' but it has not been recognized by any country. A number of other administrations have established themselves within Somalia, notably the administration in Puntland, but

they have not declared themselves as a state separate from Somalia.

Although the civil strife that wracked the country in the early 1990s has dissipated, and while there have been numerous attempts to bring the factions of the country together, no initiatives have yet seen the likely re-establishment of Somalia as a sovereign nation. However, efforts are continuing with the aim of uniting Somalia as a single entity or as a federation. Perhaps, in time, it will find stability and regain nationhood.

The Currency of Somalia Prior to Independence

Early Currency in Somalia

Prior to the arrival of European traders, most trade in the interior of Somalia was by barter or by the use of Maria Theresa thalers. On the coast, the influence of the Sultans of Muscat and Zanzibar had seen the Indian silver rupee become the dominant unit of currency. However, baisa bronze coins of Muscat, Mombasa and Zanzibar also circulated. These later coins were necessary because of the high value of the rupee and the requirement for coins of smaller value to complement the rupee.

The first known currency specific

to Italian Somaliland was an 1893 issue of 5 rupees by 'V. Filonardi & Company.' In 1889, Vincenzo Filonardi, the Italian Consul at Zanzibar, concluded treaties with the Majertejn Sultans of Obbia and Aula in favour of the Italian government and later acquired control of other ports by sub-letting them from the Imperial British East Africa Company or renting them from the Sultan of Zanzibar. The last agreement was signed in 1892, but by this time Filonardi had forgone his consul's post to establish his own trading company. Having arranged the various treaties and acquisitions for the Italian government, the government had entrusted their holdings on the Benadir coast to Filonardi, who opened his first establishment at Adale (Itala) in 1891. However, trade from Somalia was not enough to support the former consul's enterprise and V. Filonardi & Company was wound up in 1896. From this point, the Italian government ran their possessions through Italian Residents at four ports on the coast.

The notes issued by V. Filonardi & Company carried the following text: *V. Filonardi & C. Buono per Rupie Cinque pagabili al portatore. Itala 15 luglio 1893*; i.e. 'V. Filonardi and Company, Good for five rupees,



A 10-shilling note issued by the East African Currency Board. Notes from this series were used in British Somaliland for many years and in Italian Somaliland during and after WWII.

payable to the bearer. Itala (Adale) 15 July 1893.' Above the signature of Vincenzo Filonardi are the words *Il gerente* (The Manager). The text was repeated on the back of the note in Arabic. To the left of the note is a blind stamp which embosses text in Latin and Arabic characters. The notes were printed by *Litografica Salomone - Roma*. It is believed that Filonardi & Company issued only the 5-rupee note.

The notes of V. Filonardi & Company were promissory notes that were never meant to replace the currencies circulating in Italian Somaliland. The Maria Theresa thaler, the Indian rupee, and smaller baiza coins continued to circulate during and after the Filonardi issue. However, due to a shortage in small coins, in April 1905 the Italian government introduced one centesimo coins (at a rate of 150 to the Maria Theresa thaler) and, from May 1905, 25-centesimi coins were introduced.

However, this measure did not prove successful and neither was an attempt to introduce Italian baiza coins in denominations of 1, 2 and 4 baiza under a decree dated 29 January 1909. Ultimately, on 8 December 1909 the Italian silver rupee was introduced, being available in one-, half- and quarter-rupee coins.

Bank of Italy Cash Certificates

While successful as a coin, problems arose when the silver content of the Italian silver rupees became more valuable than the coins themselves. This led to a drain of coins from the Italian colony. Under Decree No.600 of 13 May 1920 the Bank of Italy began issuing cash certificates (*buoni di cassa*) in Italian rupees. The cash certificates were given the status of legal tender and could pay any debt with the Italian government. According to the decree authorizing their issue, certificates in the denominations

of one, five, ten, twenty and fifty rupees were to be issued, but as it transpired, only one-, five- and ten-rupee certificates were issued. The certificates were to be fully convertible, but by the time that they were introduced, the convertibility was suspended. The certificates were a resounding success and anecdotal evidence suggests they were preferred to silver coin. Although up to two million rupees were allowed to be issued in cash certificates, the amount in circulation never exceeded one and a half million rupees, which was reached in 1924.

The three certificates, or notes, issued by the Bank of Italy have common text, differing only for the value of the certificates. The text is:

*Banca D'Italia
Somalia Italiana
Buono di Cassa
<Denomination>*

Emessa Contro Deposito Corrispondente di Valute de Argento Esistenti Nelle Casse Della Banca

This text can be translated as:

*Bank of Italy
Italian Somalia
Cash certificate
<Denomination>*

Issued against a deposit corresponding to a value of silver held in the vault of the Bank

The certificates are signed by 'Stringher,' as the Director General (*Il Direttore Generale*) and 'Sacchi' as the Cashier (*Il Cassiere*). The back



The pattern for this 5-somali note was also used for the unissued 1-somalo note. This is one of three designs used for notes of the Casa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia.



The back of the 5-somalo note, designed with classical simplicity.



This design for the 20-somali note was also adapted for the first 5-somali note and the 10-somali note issued by Somalia during the Italian mandate.



The classical pattern of this design is given an African theme by including the head of an elephant as the watermark in the center of the note.

of each note has Arabic text that is similar to the Italian text on the face of the notes, while in a panel at the bottom on the back is the decree under which the notes were issued. This reads (in Italian):

*Reggio Decreto 13 Maggio 1920
N.600.*

The design of each note is distinct, but each note has its design created with engine work and filigree patterns. Details of the individual notes are:

1 Rupee

Size: 110 x 65 mm
Colors: Red and crimson
Watermark: '1 Rupia'

5 Rupees

Size: 142 x 90 mm
Colors: Brown and beige
Watermark: The head of the goddess Minerva

10 Rupees

Size: 160 x 98 mm
Colors: Maroon and brown
Watermark: The head of the god Mercury

Such was the success of the cash certificates, that the Italian government decided to introduce the Italian lira into the colony. Decree No.1143 of 18 June 1925 authorized the introduction of the lira as legal tender, replacing the Italian rupee. (However, the Indian rupee continued to circulate as non-legal tender.) In order to introduce the lira, a period of exchange commenced on 1 July 1925 and ended on 30 June 1926. Dur-

ing this period, the Bank of Italy at Mogadishu exchanged the rupees for lire at a rate of eight lire per rupee. The lira proved to be an acceptable and reliable currency for the colony, but there developed an opinion in Italy, that it might be wiser to have a separate currency for its colonies (including Eritrea), which would be linked to the lira, rather than allowing the Italian lira to circulate in its colonies.

The Italian East African Issues

In 1936 Italy set up the administrative area of *Africa Orientale Italiana* (Italian East Africa), which consisted of Italian Somaliland, Ethiopia (invaded in 1935) and Eritrea (an Italian colony since 1890). From 1938 a new currency was issued by the Bank of Italy for 'Italian East Africa,' which consisted of notes denominated in 50, 100, 500 and 1000 lire. These notes were similar to the notes then circulating in Italy, but their colors were modified and they had two red overprints. In the top margin of the notes was written:

Serie Speciale Africa Orientale Italiana
which translates as:

Special Series for Italian East Africa

and in the bottom margin was the following text:

*È Vietata la Circolazione Fuori dei Territori
dell'Africa Orientale Italiana*

which translates as:

*It is prohibited to circulate outside the
territory of Italian East Africa.*

It is understood, but not confirmed, that the notes prepared for Italian East Africa were placed into circulation in late 1938 by an authorization dated 12 September 1938. A further authorization dated 14 January 1939 is believed to have placed further notes into circulation. It is understood that the number of notes authorized for each issue was as shown in Chart 1.

(Only 2,970,000 of the 50-lire notes of the 1939 issue were actually produced, even though an even three million notes were ordered.)

Prior to the British occupation of Italian East Africa in May 1942, all notes prepared for Italian East Africa were repatriated and stored in the vaults of the Bank of Italy in Rome. When a shortage of currency occurred in Italy later that year, it was decided to release the Italian East African notes into circulation. This commenced on 26 November 1942.

	Chart 1			
	50 lire	100 lire	500 lire	1000 lire
12 September 1938	8,000,000	4,000,000	1,000,000	500,000
14 January 1939	3,000,000	1,500,000	200,000	100,000

The East African Shilling

In the Somaliland Protectorate, the Indian rupee, which circulated prior to the arrival of the British, continued to circulate after the British took control. Ultimately the Indian rupee became the official currency and was declared legal tender in the protectorate. Following the creation of the East African Currency Board in 1919, the East African shilling began to circulate in the Protectorate and some years later 'Somaliland Ordinance No. 25 of 1937' empowered 'the Governor [of Somaliland] by proclamation to "admit" East African Currency' into Somaliland. While the Indian Rupee remained the principal currency, and official currency for accounting purposes, the shilling of the East African Currency Board was given official circulating status under the ordinance. For many years both currencies circulated in apparent harmony.

Following the outbreak of World War II and the capture of Mogadishu by Lieutenant General Cunningham on 26 February 1941, there was an unprecedented demand in the former Italian colony for currency issued by the East African Currency Board. In the initial period of occupation, Italian lire circulated freely alongside East African shillings, although a permit from the British military authorities was required for payments in lire for debts valued at forty East African shillings or more. Proclamations Nos. 3 & 4 of the British Military Administration, dated 2 and 21 March respectively, allowed for numerous currencies to circulate in Italian Somalia; these being the East African shilling, the Indian rupee, the Egyptian pound and the Maria Therese thaler. Under Order No. 1 of 24 March 1941, the exchange rates were set at the following:

20 East African Shillings	= 480 Lire
492 Lire	= 1 Egyptian pound
1 Indian rupee	= 36 Lire
1 Maria Therese thaler	= 45 Lire

11 Maria Therese thalers	= 1 Egyptian pound
1.50 Indian rupees	= 1 East African shilling

Under the British military administration, all accounts were kept in East African shillings and thus the shilling became the default currency for the occupied territory. Proclamation No.20 of 1 July 1942 allowed people to use Italian lire to pay for any debt, so long as payment was in coins and notes that did not exceed 50 lire. Similarly Egyptian pounds and Maria Therese thalers were accepted for official payments. The exchange rate for such transactions was 24 lire to the East African shilling, one Egyptian pound to twenty East African shillings, and one Maria Therese thaler to 1.87½ East African shillings. Where debts were incurred in East African shillings, only that currency could be used to pay for that debt, whereas debts incurred by other currencies could be paid by that currency or in East African shillings. The proclamation specifically excluded the use of the lira issued by Italian East Africa as valid currency for the payment of debts. Through these regulations, the East African shilling became the dominant currency in the occupied territory.

The Somalo and the *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia*

After World War II the United Nations placed former Italian Somaliland under the administration of an Italian Trusteeship. While officially titled the 'United Nations Trust Territory of Somalia' the area continued to be referred to as 'Italian Somaliland.' The United Nations approved passing control of the Trust Territory to Italy in November 1949 and on 27 January 1950, Italy was given financial administration of the Territory. As early as 1948 Italy had been considering the options for currencies in Somalia, in anticipation that the territory would be returned to its control. After rejecting the idea

of re-introducing the Italian lira, or a currency linked to the lira, it was decided to introduce a new currency. The new currency was denominated the 'somalo' and it was authorized by the Trusteeship Administration's Ordinance No. 14 of 16 May 1950. The somalo was valued at 0.124414 grammes of fine gold and was, significantly, the same value as the East African shilling. By making the somalo equivalent to the East African shilling, it was anticipated that the transition to the new currency would be as painless as possible.

In adopting the value of the East African shilling, it was also decided to utilize the same denominations in which the East African shillings were issued, although not all denominations issued by the East African Currency Board were adopted for the new currency. Notes were prepared in the denominations of 1, 5, 10, 20 and 100 somali. ('somali' being the plural of 'somalo.') Coins were prepared in denominations of 1 somalo, 50, 10, 5 and 1 centesimi. The designs for the notes and coins were detailed in Ordinances No. 15 of 18 May 1950 and No. 44 of 22 July 1950.

The 1-somalo note of this issue is an enigma for two reasons. Firstly, the denomination is written as '1 somali' on the face of the note, whereas it should have read '1 somalo.' In fact, the denomination is expressed as '1 somalo' on the back of the note and the coin issued for the same value is denominated as '1 somalo.' This suggests that the use of the word 'somali' on the face of this note was a mistake. Secondly, this note is a mystery because it was never placed into circulation. Evidently, the coin of the same value was declared to be preferable to the note, but one can't help wondering if the reason for non-issue may have been linked to the incorrect value written on the note. According to records¹ issued after the redemption of this series of notes, only two hundred and twenty five of the '1-somali' notes were outstanding. It appears

likely that these were distributed as souvenirs at the time of issue, or provided as samples to various authorities. Official presentation folders that included all notes in this series, including the '1-somali' note, were prepared and it is likely that most of the outstanding 1-somali notes were placed in these folders.

Shortly after the release of the notes prepared for the Trusteeship, a new 5-somali note was introduced. Decree No. 7 of 22 March 1951 detailed the design of the second 5-somali note and Decree No. 61 of 22 May 1951 authorized the introduction of the new note. The original 5-somali note did not prove popular when first introduced and, in fact, fewer notes than the authorized issue were printed. In addition, the 5-somali notes were the most widely used notes in circulation and were subject to significant wear and tear. This led to the need to replace these note more often than the higher denomination notes and more notes could be produced when a smaller sized format was adopted. The choice of a smaller sized note may also have been due to the similarity of the first 5-somali note to the 10- and 20-somali notes. When the second 5-somali note was introduced it used a similar design to the unissued '1-somali' note. (The decision to introduce a reduced-size note may also have been influenced by the non-issue of the '1-somali' note.) Both types of 5-somali note circulated for the next ten years without any attempt to withdraw the first variety of the note.

All notes issued by the *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia* were printed by the *Istituto Poligrafico dello Stato. Officina Carte Valori-Roma* (i.e. the State Printing Office. Banknote Works Rome) and their imprint *I.P.S. Off. Carte-Valori-Roma* appears in the bottom margin of each note. The notes were prepared in three different designs. The first design (Type 1) was used for the '1-somali' note and the second 5-somali note, while the second design (Type 2) was used for the first 5-somali note

and the 10- and 20-somali notes, and the 100-somali note had its own design (Type 3). Details of each design are as follows:

Type 1 ('1 somali' and the second 5 somali)

Size: 126 x 73 mm

Face of the note: The head of a leopard is in the centre of the note, with the watermark in a panel to the right and the denomination of the note written in Arabic and Latin text in a panel to the left, which also contains the signatures. (The head of the leopard carries the imprint 'Canforini Inc.') Above the title of the issuing authority, in a panel at the lower centre, is the Somali star and two crescent moons.

Back of the note: A classically designed panel contains the value of the note with the appropriate numeral being repeated in Arabic and western numerals. At the left is the area for viewing the watermark and at the right is written '1950 Roma' in Arabic and Latin text. The series and serial numbers are repeated twice in the corners of the note.

Watermark: The head of a leopard.

1 Somalo

Colors: Brown and beige.

Signatories: Spinelli as the President (*Il Presidente*) and Giannini as the Controller (*Il Controllore*)

5 Somali (second issue)

Colors: Maroon and grey

Signatories: Ciancimino as the President (*Il Presidente*) and Giannini as the Controller (*Il Controllore*)

Type 2 (The first 5 somali, the 10 somali and the 20 somali)

Size: 158 x 98 mm

Face of the note: To either side of the note are ornamental panels containing designs representing a Somali fireplace, surmounted by the Somali star and two crescent moons. In the centre of the note is the panel for the watermark and to either side of the panel is written the denomination of the note in Arabic and Latin text and the signatures. The name of the issuing authority is in a panel at the top centre.

Back of the note: An ornate design based on classic Roman elements has the watermark in its centre, the word

'Somali' above the watermark and the denomination in western numerals at the far left and right. At the bottom of the note is written '1950 Roma' in Arabic and Latin text. The series and serial numbers are repeated twice in the corners of the note.

Watermark: The head of an elephant.

5 Somali (first issue)

Colors: Blue and green.

Signatories: Spinelli as the President (*Il Presidente*) and Giannini as the Controller (*Il Controllore*)

10 Somali

Colors: Dark and light green

Signatories: (1) Spinelli as the President (*Il Presidente*) and Giannini as the Controller (*Il Controllore*)

(2) Ciancimino as the President and Giannini as the Controller

(3) Ciancimino as the President and Inserra as the Controller

20 Somali

Colors: Brown and beige

Signatories:

(1) Spinelli as the President (*Il Presidente*) and Giannini as the Controller (*Il Controllore*)

(2) Ciancimino as the President and Giannini as the Controller

(3) Ciancimino as the President and Inserra as the Controller

Type 3 (100 somali)

Size: 165 x 100 mm

Colors: Dark brown, light brown and beige

Face of the note: There are two identical panels at the left and right, with classical ornamentation. The panel at the left contains an illustration of the head of a lion in its centre, while the corresponding panel to the right contains the watermark. The centre of the note is divided horizontally into three parts. The top panel contains the word 'Somali' in Arabic, the bottom panel contains the same word in Latin script, and the central panel contains the name of the issuing authority and the signatures.

Back of the note: Against a fine ornamental background, which vacates an area at the left for viewing the watermark, is a frame constructed with classic Roman elements. In a cartouche at the top of the frame is the

word 'Somali' and to either side, in the corners of the frame, is written the number '100' in western and Arabic numerals. In the centre of the frame is the *Palazzo del Governo* of Somalia. At the bottom of the note is written '1950 Roma' in Arabic and Latin text. The series and serial numbers are repeated twice in the corners of the note.

Watermark: The head of a lion.

Signatories:

(1) Spinelli as the President (*Il Presidente*) and Giannini as the Controller (*Il Controllore*)

(2) Ciancimino as the President and Giannini as the Controller

While each note in this series has its own watermark, there is a common watermark that covers the paper for each denomination. The common watermark consists of wavy lines between which is repeated the word 'SOMALO.'

The number of notes to be prepared for the initial issue was fixed by Ordinance No.16 of 16 May 1950. The following chart shows the authorized issue for the initial release, the actual amount issued, the total issued over the period in which they circulated, and the amounts outstanding in May 1963. The amounts are expressed in somali (and not the total number of notes). (See Table 1.)

The issue of the somalo notes was supervised by the *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia*, in essence a currency board, which came into existence on 18 April 1950. The authority was based in Rome and was under joint control of the Italian

Ministry for Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of the Treasury. However, the authority was established in the form of a company limited by shares. The paid up capital of the authority was 87.5 million lire and this was issued in one thousand shares of 87,500 lire each. The Ministry for Italian Africa held 995 shares and the *Società Finanziamenti Esteri* (Foreign Financing Company) held 5 shares.

The *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia* was responsible for controlling the backing for, and issue of, the notes and coins issued in Somalia. The notes were fully backed by foreign currency, funds available at sight or short notice in foreign banks, and foreign Treasury bills maturing in less than one year. Although a legal entity in its own right, the *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia* did not partake in the day-to-day activities of the issue of currency. While a controller was appointed in Mogadishu, to supervise the activities of the board in Somalia and to provide a signature for the notes, the management of the authority was taken over at an early stage, i.e. on 9 May 1950, by the Bank of Italy. Thus the 'Banking Department' of the monetary authority was run by the Mogadishu branch of the Bank of Italy.

The introduction of the somalo to Somalia commenced on 22 May 1950. Ordinance No.17 of 18 May 1950 authorized the Bank of Italy to supervise the introduction of the new currency and to exchange it with the old currency. The exchange

in Mogadishu took place through the auspices of the three Italian Banks – the Bank of Italy, the *Banco di Roma* and the *Banco di Napoli*. Six mobile offices—in the Commissariats of Benadir, Lower Juba, Upper Juba, Lower Webi Shebeli, Mudugh and Migiurtinia—undertook the exchange in areas outside Mogadishu. The exchange took place from 22 May to 22 July 1950, but by July it was deemed necessary to extend the ability to exchange currency at the Bank of Italy in Mogadishu by one month. It was intended that the somalo was to become the only legal tender in the Trust Territory after the period of exchange, on 23 July 1950, but the date was amended to 22 August³ to coincide with the extended period of exchange in Mogadishu. The total amount of the new currency issued at the end of the exchange period was 17,635,112.10 somali and it was exchanged for 17,454,641.24 East African shillings and 15,791,892.30 Italian lire. (Of the East African shillings accounted for in the exchange, some five million had been held by the Bank of Italy in Mogadishu and had not been in circulation.)

The notes issued by the *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia* circulated for ten years, to the end of Italian control of the Trust Territory. Apart from the initial change to the 5-somali note and some changes in signatories, there were no further changes to the notes during the period they were issued. Following independence on 1 July 1960, these

Table 1. Somali bank notes issued, produced, destroyed and outstanding as at 31 May 1963.²

Denomination	Authorized for issue in 1950	Printed in 1950	Total Produced	Withdrawn and Destroyed by 31 May 1963	In reserve on 31 May 1963	In circulation on 31 May 1963
100	6,500,000	6,500,000	21,500,000	18,300,400	1,672,300	1,527,300
20	16,000,000	16,000,000	68,000,000	54,672,020	6,209,560	7,118,420
10	9,000,000	9,000,000	36,000,000	31,740,910	1,879,730	1,879,730
5 (1 st type)	7,500,000	5,000,000	5,210,000	5,164,925	5,000	40,075
5 (2 nd type)	—	—	8,000,000	7,169,695	453,995	376,310
1	1,500,000	1,500,000	1,500,000	1,499,775	—	225
Total	40,500,000	38,000,000	140,210,000	118,547,725	10,220,585	11,441,690

notes continued to circulate under the authority of the National Bank of Somalia.

As the Italian Trusteeship of Somalia neared its end, a decision was taken to convert the *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia* into a central bank, as it was deemed that such an entity would be needed by independent Somalia. Consequently, the President of the Italian Republic's Decree No.1131 of 2 December 1958 authorized the changes necessary to convert the authority to a central bank. A Directorate General of the *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia* was established at Mogadishu on 6 April 1959 and an office was established to take over the responsibilities previously undertaken by the Bank of Italy.

The United Nations Trust Territory of Somalia became independent on 1 July 1960. However, prior to independence, the protectorate of British Somaliland and the Trust Territory of Somalia had agreed to unify as one nation. To enable this to occur, British Somaliland became independent on 26 June 1960. So, on the day that the Trust Territory of Somaliland achieved its independence, the unification of Somalia was accomplished.

The National Bank of Somalia

The First Issue

Following the unification of Italian Somaliland and British Somaliland, the *Banca Nazionale Somalia* or the 'National Bank of Somalia' opened for business on 1 July 1960. While the newly established Bank

was part of the move to independence, in reality the Bank continued to operate as it had under Italian administration as the *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia*. The bank had simply changed its name. The National Bank initially had one office in Mogadishu staffed by fourteen people, but by 1965 the Bank had established nine branches and an administrative staff of one hundred and thirty Somalis and eleven foreign nationals. The Bank operated as a commercial bank and as the central bank.

At the time of unification, the East African shilling was circulating in the former British Protectorate of Somaliland and the somalo was circulating in the former Trust Territory. During 1961 a number of measures were taken to rationalize the currency circulating in the unified country. Firstly, the Monetary Ordinance of 6 March 1961 established the somalo as the currency for the unified nation, after which Presidential Decree No.93 of 10 April 1961 authorized the exchange of East African shillings with somali in the Northern Region (formerly the British Protectorate). This exchange commenced on 22 April 1961. Subsequently, under Presidential Decree No.113 of 15 June 1961, the East African shilling lost its legal tender status in Somalia on 31 July 1961.

Following the withdrawal of the East African shilling, steps were taken to introduce a new currency under the authority of the National Bank of Somalia. Consequently, Presidential Decree No.86 of 5 March

1962 specified the denominations and the characteristics of the bank notes to be introduced for the new nation. The bank notes consisted of four denominations in the values of 5, 10, 20 and 100 *scellini*, or 'shillings.' Presidential Decree No.87 of 5 March 1962 specified the number of notes to be printed. The original printing was for the following number of notes: 5 shillings — two million; 10 shillings — two million; 20 shillings — four million; and 100-shillings — one million. Each note carried a series number commencing at A001, which incremented every one hundred thousand notes. The Finance Minister's Decree No.294 of 20 November 1962 made the new bank notes full legal tender and the notes were placed into circulation on 15 December 1962. Due to the lack of an effective banking system in Somalia, the exchange of currency was accomplished through the post offices. However, because of the sparse population and the nomadic life of some inhabitants, the process of exchanging the notes was slow. By 31 May, some five months after the introduction of the new currency, just over 14% of the money in circulation was still in somali, while the rest was in the new shilling. The somalo notes issued by the former *Cassa per la Circolazione Monetaria della Somalia* ceased to be legal tender on 31 December 1963.

The new notes were of an equivalent value to the somalo notes they replaced and, in essence, the first issue of the National Bank simply represented the change in issuing



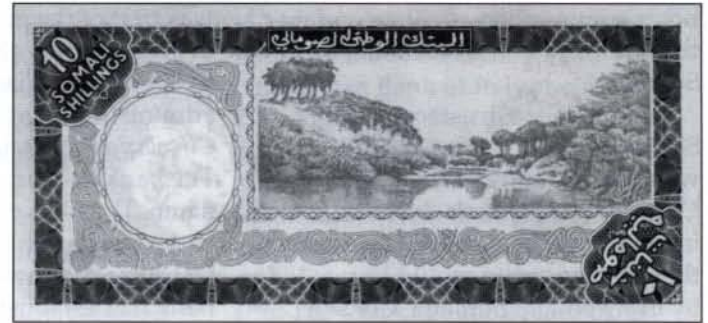
The first 5-shilling note issued by the National Bank of Somalia, printed in Italy, depicts a kudu at the left.



The back of the first 5-shilling note, showing a traditional trading craft.



The first 10-shilling note issued by the National Bank of Somalia, depicting the flower of a cotton plant at the left and the head of a leopard as the watermark.



The tranquil Juba River is depicted on the back of this 10-shilling note.

authority. Denominated as *scellini*⁴ on the face of the notes, they are also identified as 'Somali shillings' in English and 'shilin Somali' in Arabic in alternate corners on the face of the notes. The English and Arabic text occur once on the back of the notes. Each note shares a similar design, while possessing individual characteristics.

Common to each note is the layout on the face of the notes, the watermark, the text, and the signatories. The layout for each note consists of a patterned border⁵, which provides expanded corners that contain the value of the note in English and Somali. Each note contains an ornamental design in the centre of the note, linking the vignette at the left with an oval containing the watermark at the right. The border pattern and the ornamental design are the same for the 5- and 10-shilling notes (which are also the same size), while similarly the border pattern and ornamental design are

the same for the 20- and 100-shilling notes (which are, in turn, the same size). The watermark for all notes is the head of a leopard.

The text is very simple, containing no promissory clause. The name of the issuing authority appears boldly across the top of the note, below which is the denomination of the note in dominant lettering, under which are the titles of the signatories and their signatures. Below the signatures is 'Mogadiscio 1962,' being the place and date of issue, and the left-hand margin contains the decree under which the notes were issued:

'Decreto P. R. 5 Marzo 1962 N.87.'⁶ The significance of the date that appears on the notes under 'Mogadiscio' is not understood. The decree suggests that the date of '1962' that appears below 'Mogadiscio' reflects the date of authorization, but it might also be the date when the notes were placed into circulation. As this date is not always, on subsequent issues, the same year as the

date of the decree, it suggests that it is intended to be the year when the notes were placed into circulation. Finally, in the lower margin is the printer's imprint: 'I.P.S. Off. Carte Valori-Roma'⁷.

The signatories for this series are Dr. Abdi Aden Mohamed⁸, signing as *Il Presidente* (i.e. President of the Board of Directors), and Ahmed Shire Addawe, signing as *Il Presidente del Collegio dei Revisori* (i.e. President of the Board of Auditors). The role of the Board of Auditors was to audit the accounts of the Bank and ensure that the figures reported in the balance sheet were correct. The Board was in effect an internal audit committee, conducting a role that was later taken on by external auditors.

The differences for each note in this issue are simple but effective, the differences are: the size, the colors, the vignettes on the face of the notes and the illustrations on the back of each note. The details of the



The face of 20-shilling note shares common design features of the other notes issued by the National Bank in their first series. The vignette is of bananas.



The headquarters of the National Bank of Somalia appear on the back of the 20-shilling note.



Traditional domestic handicrafts of Somalia are illustrated on the face of the 100-shilling note.



The former National Assembly building is depicted on the back of all 100-shilling notes of the first four issues by the National Bank of Somalia.

individual notes are:

5 shillings

Size: 152 x 72 mm

Vignette: The head of a kudu.

Illustration on back: A dhow under sail.

Dominant color: Red.

10 shillings

Size: 152 x 72 mm

Vignette: The flower of a cotton plant.

Illustration on back: A scene of the Juba River.

Dominant color: Green.

20 shillings

Size: 164 x 81 mm

Vignette: A bunch of bananas.

Illustration on back: The headquarters of the National Bank of Somalia.

Dominant color: Burgundy.

100 shillings

Size: 164 x 81 mm

Vignette: Traditional domestic handicrafts of Somalia.

Illustration on back: The former National Assembly building in Mogadishu.

Dominant color: Blue.

It should be noted that while the illustration on the back of each note is different, the design on the back of each note is also different. This is unlike the face of each note where there are many similar design elements, particularly for the 5- and 10-shilling notes and again for the 20- and 100-shilling notes.

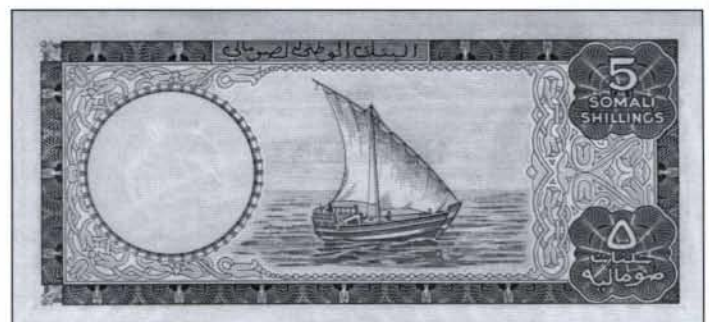
The vignette on the 5-shilling note is the head of a greater kudu, which is a type of antelope inhabiting East Africa. The head of a kudu had been used for many years on the official badge of British Somaliland and its use on a bank note issued for united Somalia is in deference to the Northern Region.⁹ The 10-shilling note displays a flower from a cotton plant and the 20-shilling note carries an illustration of a bunch of bananas. Both crops were introduced to Somalia by the Italians. Bananas were introduced as an experimental crop by the Duke of Abruzzi, a pioneer of agriculture in Somalia. Cotton had been introduced quite early in

the development of Somalia and for many years it was the principal export from Somalia. However, in 1932 banana exports overtook cotton as the highest earner of revenue for the colony, although the export of cotton continued to grow over the ensuing years and both products earned significant revenue. The illustration on the face of the 100-shilling note is of traditional handicrafts, including a 'hero' (a small bowl), a figurine, a tall vessel and a musical instrument (possibly of the type called a 'sha-reero').

The illustration on the back of the 5-shilling note shows a traditional vessel under sail. This type of vessel was used for trading up and down the coast. The back of the 10-shilling note shows a riverine scene of the Juba River, in southern Somalia. The area between and around the Juba and Shebelle rivers is the most fertile in Somalia and it provides the principal areas of cultivation in the Southern Region of Somalia.



Printed by De La Rue, the notes of the National Bank's second issue were redesigned, while maintaining the basic character of their predecessors. (Compare this image with the earlier 5-shilling note.)



While very similar to the back of the previous 5-shilling note, the oval pattern around the watermark has been replaced with a circle for the De La Rue note.



The De La Rue notes of this pattern were issued in 1966, 1968 and 1971. This issue of 1968 shows the additional colors added to the background of the note, an enhancement over the Italian notes of the first issue.



Color is also added to the back of the notes. Perhaps enhancing the security of the note, the extra color does not necessarily enhance the design.

The back of the 20-shilling note shows the headquarters of National Bank in Mogadishu. An unimposing structure, it says much for the buildings in Mogadishu at the time of independence. A second building appears on the back of the 100-shilling note, this being the National Assembly building in Mogadishu. A symbol of the democratic union of Somalia in the early 1960s, the building became the headquarters of the local government authority after the military regime took over in 1969. It has also been used as a courthouse at various times.

The notes of the first issue were authorized under the 'Decree of the President of the Republic No.86 of 5th March, 1962' and this decree included draft specifications for the issue of notes in Somalia. The specification can be considered a 'draft,' as there were certain aspects of the issued notes that differ from the published decree. Firstly, the size of the notes in the decree are given as 142 x 62

mm for the 5- and 10-shilling notes and 155 x 70 mm for the 20- and 100-shilling notes, but all issued notes were in a larger format. Secondly, the vignette on the 5-shilling note was originally intended to be 'the head of an ostrich,' whereas the head of a greater kudu has been used on the issued note. The adoption of the kudu was almost certainly due to pressure from elements of the Northern Region (i.e. former Somaliland) to retain their former symbol on one of the notes.

The Second Issue

The second issue of bank notes by the National Bank is similar to the notes of the first issue, but significant changes occurred in this issue. The changes are due to Thomas De La Rue and Company of Great Britain taking over the production of notes for the National Bank of Somalia. The notes, while similar to their predecessors, have been redesigned, with some of the more obvious

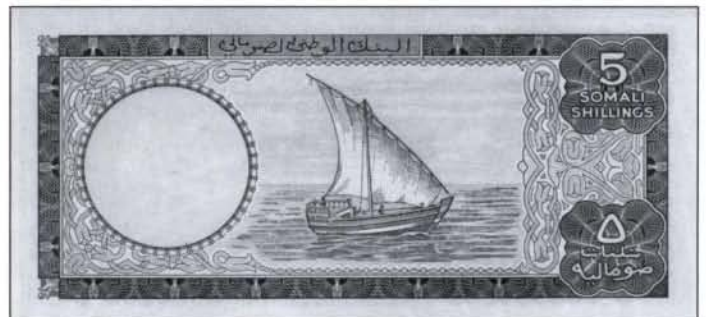
changes being: the borders on the face and back have been redrawn; the circle holding the watermark replaces the oval found in the previous issue; the illustrations and ornamental patterns have been redrawn; and the ornamental patterns have been printed with bolder colors. Significantly, a background color has been introduced for each note, both on the face and the back. There is also a change to the font used for the serial numbers.

The notes of the second issue carry the date of emission as 'Mogadishu 1966' and the decree authorizing their issue appears in the left-hand margin as: 'Decreto P. R. 14 Settembre 1966 N.196.' The signatories for this issue are Sheik Abdi Haji Abicar¹⁰, signing as *Il Presidente*, and Haji Yahya Haji Abdullahi¹¹, signing as *Il Presidente del Collegio dei Revisori*.

An innovation was brought to this series with the introduction of two fluorescent features, being the use of a fluorescing security thread and the



The 5-shilling note of the National Bank's fourth issue is the only note in these series to change its color. Originally red, this denomination is brown in the fourth issue.



The change in color is continued on the back of this 5-shilling note.



This 100-shilling of the fourth issue by the National Bank utilizes the same pattern for all notes prepared by De La Rue between 1966 and 1971. It is based on the Italian design issued in 1962.



De La Rue's version of the National Assembly, as depicted on the back of the 100-shilling notes issued in the second, third and fourth issue by the National Bank.

use of fluorescing ink. The security thread can be detected running just to the right of centre. When a clean note is held to the light, a light brown thread can be seen. When the note is subjected to ultra-violet light the thread will fluoresce as a blue color. Over the watermark, the denomination of the note is repeated eight times in ink that is invisible in normal light, but which becomes visible in ultra-violet light. The denomination is written four times in Arabic numerals and four times in western numerals. Each repetition of the number in fluorescent ink is written in a different font, making it difficult for counterfeiters to copy the feature.

The Third Issue

The notes of the third issue by the National Bank of Somalia are identical to those of the second issue, except for the date of issue, the title of one signatory, and the signatories. The date of issue is given as '1968' at the bottom of the note and the reference to the authorizing decree in the left-hand margin reads: 'Decreto P. R. 5 Dicembre 1968 N.276.' The signatories for this issue are Dr. Abdullahi Ahmed Addow¹², signing as *Il Governatori* (Governor), and Maslah Ali Mohamed, signing as *Il Presidente del Collegio dei Revisori*.

The change in title of the first signatory from *Il Presidente* to *Il Governatori* is a precursor to changes wrought in the Somali banking system during 1968. Under Decree-Law No.6 of 19 October 1968 the

Somali National Bank was to absorb the Somali Credit Bank and, within a maximum period of one year, the National Bank was to separate its functions as a commercial bank and central bank. The new law also dictated that the bank was to be headed by a Governor rather than by a President, as well as reforming the composition of the board (limiting it to five members).

This issue of bank notes sees a reduction in fluorescent features. The light brown security thread that fluoresces remains, but there is no longer any fluorescing numbers placed over the watermark.

The Fourth Issue

In October 1969 a revolution saw the overthrow of the elected government and the assumption of rule by the Supreme Revolutionary Council. The Council was manned by members of Somalia's military and was led by General Muhammad Siad Barre. The immediate effect on the National Bank of Somalia was significant, with the Bank's Board of Directors and the Board of Auditors dismissed and not replaced. However, the effect on the Bank's note issue was negligible, as the fourth issue of notes was almost identical to the preceding issues.

The changes introduced in this series primarily concern the date of issue, the form of the decree, and the signatories. The date of issue is '1971' and the decree in the left-hand margin, which reflects a subtle

change in Somalia's political structure by the authority under which it is issued, now reads: 'Decreto PCRS 20 Luglio 1971 N.175.'¹³; i.e. the decree is issued under authority of the President of the Supreme Revolutionary Council as opposed to the President of the Republic. Following the removal of the Board of Auditors a second signatory was required to replace the signature of the President of the Board of Auditors. The officers of the Bank decided to follow the examples of the *Banca d'Italia*, whose notes carried the signatures of the Governor and the Cashier, and the Bank of England, whose notes carry only the signature of the Cashier. Therefore, the signatories for this issue are Dr. Abdurahman Nur Herzi¹⁴, signing as *Il Governatori*, and Mohamed Dalmar, signing as *Il Cassiere* (Cashier).

The only other change concerns the 5-shilling note. For an unknown reason the color of this denomination was changed, while the design remained unaltered. Forgoing the red color that had been used on the previous three issues, the 5-shilling note became chocolate brown and the colors in the centre of the note became darker. This note is printed entirely by the lithographic process and the change in color may be due to the discontinuation of the intaglio process that was used on all previous issues.

This is one of few Somali issues where it is known when the notes were released into circulation. The

100- and 20-shilling notes of this issue went into circulation on 10 March 1972, with the 10- and 5-shilling notes introduced a couple of months later.¹⁵ As the date in the decree authorizing these bank notes and the date below 'Mogadiscio' are both 1971, the belief that the second date refers to the year when notes were placed into circulation is not supported by this issue; unless the notes were planned for release in 1971 and were delayed. Notes in this issue carry a fluorescent security thread, but no other fluorescent feature.

The Fifth Issue

In 1970 the new regime of Mohammed Siad Barre launched its program of 'Scientific Socialism.' One of the immediate effects of the introduction of socialism was the nationalization of the four foreign banks then operating in Somalia – *Banco di Roma*, *Banco di Napoli*, National and Grindlays Bank and *Banque de Port Said*. In place of the four foreign banks the government established the Somali Commercial Bank and the Somali Savings and Credit Bank.

In late 1974 a new series of bank notes was prepared and at this time the opportunity was taken to 'Somalize' the bank notes, resulting in the issue of dramatically new bank notes. Although the notes introduced completely new designs, the most significant aspect of the notes is the text on the face of the notes, which is written in Somali. While this may be seen as an act of shedding the rem-

nants of Italian colonialism, which had been retained through the use of Italian text on the previous issues, the use of Somali text is of greater significance than displaying a post-colonial nationalism.

Somali is a rich language that was used to record a long oral tradition of its peoples, but for many years it was not a written language. Due to the contact of Somalis with the Islamic world, Arabic script was adopted to write the language, but the foreign script was not well suited to writing the spoken word. In 1920 Isman Yusuf Kenadid created a script for Somali which came to be called the Osmaniya script. While this gained reasonably wide acceptance in some areas of Somalia, it was not universally adopted and it was difficult to spread amongst a largely illiterate population. As Somali nationalism grew, the adoption of a universally recognized script for Somalia became a significant point of discussion. After independence was gained, no progress was made on the issue, as opinion was divided over whether Arabic or Latin script should be used. (By this time argument in favour of the Osmaniya script had lost support.) Ultimately, on 21 October 1971, Siad Barre's government unilaterally decided to use the Latin script for writing Somali and the government launched a massive education program, designed to educate the people and to ensure the Latin script was adopted. This is why, for the fifth issue, Somali text was introduced to the bank notes.

Again printed by Thomas De La Rue and Company of Great Britain, the first aspect of the new notes that is apparent to the casual observer, is that there is no white margin on any of the bank notes. The notes are full of color, with varied designs and detailed illustrations on the face of each note. Keeping with the tradition of the earlier issues, the 5- and 10-shilling notes are of a common size and have a common design on the face of the notes, although the illustrations are different. Similarly, the 20- and 100-shilling notes are the same size and share a common design, while also bearing different illustrations. Unlike the earlier issues, the two pairs of notes use common designs on the back. Sharing similar colors to their predecessors, the 5-shilling note is burgundy, the 10-shilling note is green, the 20-shilling note is brown, and the 100-shilling note is blue.

Common to all notes are the Somali coat of arms (to the left), the text, and the watermark. The coat of arms consists of two leopards supporting a shield that contains the Somali five-pointed star¹⁶, below which are crossed palm leaves, crossed spears and a scroll that bears no text. The text on each note is the same, save for the denomination. The text on the 5-shilling note reads (from the top): 'Bankiga Qaranka Soomaaliyeed' (National Bank of Somalia) in bold letters, 'XEER MGSK 11KII DISEEMBAR1974 LR134'¹⁷ in small text at the upper left, '5 Shilin Soomaali' in the upper centre, and



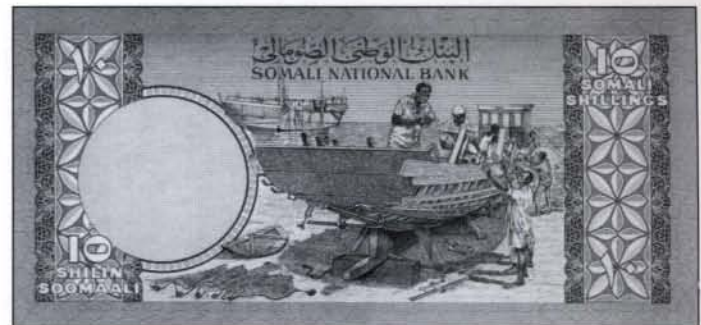
The fifth issue by the National Bank of Somalia saw a dramatic change to the design of the notes. The use of wildebeest and zebra on the face of this note was later discovered to be a mistake!



Bananas, a staple export of Somalia, are represented on the back of the 5-shilling note.



Sometimes mistaken as a 'lighthouse', the minaret of the ruined Abdul Aziz Mosque in Mogadishu is depicted on the notes of the new design.



Traditional shipbuilding is depicted on the back of the 10-shilling note.

'Muqdisho 1975' at the bottom. The denomination is written twice in Somali ('5 shilin' in top left and bottom right) and twice in English ('5 shillings' in bottom left and top right).

The signatories on the notes are now 'Taliyaha' (Governor) and 'Lacaghayaha' (Cashier). The Taliyaha is Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar and the Lacaghayaha is Mohamed Dalmar. All notes of this issue carry a series number and a serial number. The series number always commences with 'J.' (See the section on 'Series Numbers' toward the end of this study.) The watermark is the turbaned head of Sayyid Mohammed Abdullah Hassan (or Sayyid Maxamed Cabdulle Xasan). Hassan was a religious and nationalist leader who led opposition to the British in Somaliland from 1900 to 1920. Known by the British as the 'Mad Mullah,' he tried to unite Somalis into a nation that transcended clan divisions. Hassan was an orator and poet of renown, with many of his poems being regarded as classics of Somali literature. With his vision and his

powers as an orator he developed a strong band of followers; known as dervishes, and in 1899 he declared *jihad* against the colonial powers and their supporters. Although he had some success over the ensuing years, he was usually under the control of the colonial powers that he was challenging. Following a rising in 1920 he was defeated and fled to Ogaden, where he died in the same year from influenza. Hassan is today revered in Somalia as a freedom fighter as well as a poet.

The text on the back of the notes is in mixed languages. Across the top is 'Somali National Bank' in Arabic, followed by the same phrase in English. The Arabic numeral for five is in the top left and the bottom right, while '5 shilin soomaali,' i.e. in Somali text, appears in the bottom left and top right.

This series sees the use of two fluorescent security features. The brown security thread is again used and it continues to fluoresce under ultra-violet light. In addition, the fluorescent feature of eight repeti-

tions of the note's value, previously used in the National Bank's second issue, is re-introduced in this series. However, instead of being over the watermark, as it was found in the second issue, the feature is now in the centre of the note.

The details of the individual notes are:

5 shillings

Size: 153 x 72 mm

Illustration on face: Three wildebeest and two zebras on an open plain. Banana leaves are at the left and right.

Illustration on back: Men harvesting bananas in a plantation.

Dominant color: Burgundy.

10 shillings

Size: 153 x 72 mm

Illustration on face: The minaret of the ruined Abdul Aziz Mosque, located in Mogadishu. It was Mogadishu's first mosque and is now revered as a holy memorial to Abdul Aziz, the man responsible for building the mosque.

Illustration on back: Men building boats in the traditional manner.



The headquarters of the National Bank of Somalia are depicted on the face of the new 20-shilling note.



Cattle, walking along a river bed, are illustrated on the back of the 20-shilling note.



The new design for the 100-shilling note depicts an allegorical figure of a woman brandishing a gun in one hand, a shovel and an adze in the other, whilst still managing to carry a child.

A symbol for liberty, the woman is adjacent to an illustration of the Stone-thrower's monument.

Dominant color: Green.

20 shillings

Size: 165 x 80 mm

Illustration on face: The headquarters of the National Bank of Somalia.

Illustration on back: A herd of cows walking along the dry bed of a river (with just a little water apparent).

Dominant color: Brown.

100 shillings

Size: 165 x 80 mm

Illustrations on face:

a) The 'Dagahtur' (alternatively 'Dagax Tur'), or 'stone-throwers,' Monument. This monument celebrates a famous incident, wherein members of the Somali Youth League engaged their colonial overlords in a battle of stones against guns. Several members of Youth League died in the incident and it became a watershed in the movement of Somalia towards independence.

b) An allegorical figure of a woman, carrying her baby but brandishing a gun in one hand and agricultural implements in the other. Beneath her are laurel leaves of victory and behind her is the rising sun. (The evocative image is part of the propaganda spread by the socialist government running Somalia at this time.)

Illustration on back: Women working in a fruit processing plant, of the type used to process mangoes and papaya.

Dominant color: Blue.

The Central Bank of Somalia

The First Issue

In 1975 there was a change to the

structure of banking in Somalia. The two commercial banks, created in 1970, were amalgamated into the Commercial and Savings Bank of Somalia. At the same time, the National Bank of Somalia was renamed the Central Bank of Somalia. This event occurred around the same time that the last notes issued by the National Bank were being prepared for introduction, so it was inappropriate for a new issue under the authority of the Central Bank to be prepared immediately. However, a new issue was ultimately prepared and released into circulation, roughly three years after the changes to the banking system.

This issue is the same in most aspects to the previous issue, with the differences primarily appearing in the text on the notes. The changes to the text are:

- The title of the issuing authority is changed to 'Bankiga Dhexe Ee Soomaaliya' (Central Bank of Somalia)
- The decree reads 'XEER MJDS 6DII DISEMBAR 1977 LR74'¹⁸
- The date at the bottom of the note now reads '1978'
- The series identifier changes to 'T'

In addition, the signatory for the Lacaghayaha is Ali Sheikh Hussein, while Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar continues to sign as Taliyaha.

The only other differences, between the notes of the last issue by the National Bank and the initial



The back of the 100-shilling note carries an illustration of women working in a food processing plant. (Note, for later comparison, the woman at the right with the wheelbarrow.)

issue of the Central Bank, were to the 5- and 100-shilling notes. The illustration on the back of the original 100-shilling note shows a group of women sorting fruit in a processing plant, with one woman standing to the right holding a wheelbarrow. On the notes of the new issue, the woman on the right and her wheelbarrow have been removed and they remain absent in all future issues where this illustration is used. For the 5-shilling note, the color of the note has become brighter and may now be called red (although it has a touch of crimson). Minor as the change of color may have been, a more significant change occurred during the period of this issue when a second variety of the 5-shilling note was introduced. The second variety saw the removal of the illustration of the three wildebeest and two zebras and the introduction of an illustration of a herd of water buffalo.

The illustration of the wildebeest and zebras was introduced on the last issue of the National Bank and retained on the first issue of the Central Bank. However, wildebeest inhabit southern and eastern Africa, as far north as the acacia savannas of Kenya, but they do not inhabit Somalia. Zebras, while not common in Somalia, do range into Somalia and Ethiopia from northern Kenya, but it is doubtful whether they can really be regarded as an animal native to Somalia. While the depiction of zebras on Somali bank notes might just be acceptable, the inclusion of



This note is almost the same as the note of the previous issue, but the issuing Authority is now 'Bankiga Dhexe ee Soomaaliya', which is 'The Central Bank of Somalia', as opposed to the previous title of the 'National Bank of Somalia'.

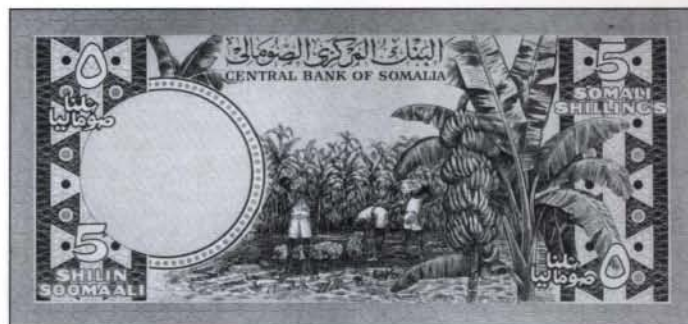
wildebeest on this and the previous issue appears to have been a mistake by the bank note designer; a mistake which was not picked up during the design and approval processes. It is strange that the error persisted from the last issue of the National Bank to this issue before the correction was made, but it was corrected with the introduction of the second variety of the 5-shilling note.

A further issue of the 10-, 20-, and 100-shilling notes was made in 1980 and this may be referred to as the 'X' series or the 1980 issue. All details of the previous issue are maintained except for the date of issue, the serial numbers, a change in title of a signatory and the actual signatories. The decree authorizing this issue reads XEER MJDS 5TII ABRIL 1980 LR52 and the inscription at the bottom of the note complements the decree by reading MUQDISHO 1980. There are two changes to the serial numbers. Firstly, the series number is now 'X' and, secondly, the series number and

Having discovered that wildebeest do not wander in Somalia, the animals on the previous 5-shilling notes were replaced with the drawings of water buffalo.

serial number are printed in red ink, whereas for all previous issues these numbers were printed in black ink.

The title given to the head of the Bank changes in this issue from 'Taliyaha' to 'Guddoomiyaha' and the actual signatories for this series are Mohamud Jama Ahmed, signing as Guddoomiyaha, and Barre Haji Omar, signing as Lacaghayaha. In identifying a Somali word that could be used to mean 'Governor,' the word 'Taliyaha' was originally chosen. However, Taliyaha also has a meaning of 'Commander' and it was felt that this meaning of the word was inappropriate for the Governor of the Bank. Therefore the word



Again, very similar to the note it replaces, it is simply the change in the issuing authority that distinguishes this note.



'Guddoomiyaha' was chosen as an alternative. Guddoomiyaha may be translated as 'Chairman,' 'Mayor' or 'Governor.'

In 1981 the 'KH' series was introduced. This series consists of just two denominations, 20 and 100 shillings. They are identical in all respects to their predecessors, save for reference to the dates on the notes and the series number. The series number is now 'KH,' while the decree reads XEER MJDS 9KII DIISAMBAR 1981 LR66 and the inscription at the bottom of the note reads MUQDISHO 1981.



The 10-shilling note of the Central Bank of Somalia is the same design as that of the previous issue, with the exception of the change in issuing authority.



The 20-shilling note of the first issue of the Central Bank of Somalia, in the pattern of the last 20-shilling note issued by the National Bank.



The face of the first 100-shilling note of the Central Bank of Somalia.



The back of the 100-shilling note issued by the Central Bank is similar to the previous note issued by the National Bank.

The title of the issuing authority has changed, as expected, but the woman with the wheelbarrow that was depicted in the illustration on the previous issue is now missing.

The Second Issue

In late 1982 preparations were put in place for the introduction of a new series of bank notes. The pertinent decree was enacted in December 1982 and in 1983 the notes were released into circulation. The notes of this series are similar to the notes of the preceding series, but they are reduced in size and this reduction meant that each note had to be redrawn.

Even though the notes have been completely redesigned it often requires a second look to identify the differences between the new notes and the notes they replaced—so similar are the designs. The exception is the 5-shilling note, which is immediately identifiable as a different design. However, the 10-, 20- and 100-shilling notes have very similar characteristics to the notes they replaced. In addition to the four traditional denominations released in Somalia over the previous thirty years, this issue sees the introduction of a new denomination of 50 shillings.

The notes of this series have several features common to each note, with the exception of the 5-shilling note. Firstly, the Somali star appears as a perfect registration device, at the bottom on the face of each note, registering perfectly with a complementary image on the back of the note. Secondly, a new fluorescent device consisting of a solid disc of ink, in which the Somali coat of arms is depicted, is centred on the face of each note. To the left of the fluorescent disc is the value of the note in western numerals and to the right is the value in Arabic numerals. Thirdly, the light brown, fluorescing security thread appears to the left of each denomination and, finally, the watermark of Sayyid Mohammed Abdullah Hassan appears in a pale area to the right.

The 5-shilling note lacks all these features except the fluorescent feature, which appears at the right on the face of the note. It has no per-

fect registration device, no security thread, and no watermark. In addition, it has only one serial number whereas all other denominations have two. The simplicity of these notes is undoubtedly due to the low value of the note.

The decree on the notes of this issue reads XEER MJDS 30KII DISEMBER 1982 LR 67¹⁹ and the date and place of issue reads: MUQDISHO 1983. This is the third time that the date at the bottom of the note has differed to the date in the decree²⁰ and, as such, reinforces the suggestion that the second date was intended to indicate when the notes were expected to be placed into circulation (although this objective was not always achieved). The signatories for this issue are Mohamud Jama Ahmed, signing as Guddoomiyaha, and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle, signing as Lacaghayaha. The series identifier for these notes always commences with 'D.' The details of each note in



The 5-shilling note of the second series issued by the Central Bank. Reduced in size, the lowest denomination note is dramatically different to its predecessor.



The back of the reduced-size 5-shilling note



The redesigned 10-shilling note has the illustration of the minaret of the Abdul Aziz Mosque at the left and the Somali star as a perfect registration device.



The smaller 10-shilling note is very similar to its predecessor, apart from the perfect registration device, but a comparison will show that the border patterns have been re-drawn.

this new series are:

5 shillings

Size: 120 x 60 mm

Illustration on face: A herd of water buffalo.

Illustration on back: Men harvesting bananas in a plantation.

Dominant color: Burgundy.

10 shillings

Size: 133 x 68 mm

Illustration on face: The minaret of the remains of the Abdul Aziz Mosque, located in Mogadishu.

Illustration on back: Men building boats in the traditional manner.

Dominant color: Green.

20 shillings

Size: 137 x 70 mm

Illustration on face: The headquarters of the Central Bank of Somalia.

Illustration on back: A herd of cows walking along the dry bed of a river (with just a little water apparent).

Dominant color: Brown.

50 shillings

Size: 142 x 72 mm

Illustration on face: The ruins of an old mosque, located in the older part of Mogadishu known as Hamar weyn. (Also spelt 'Xamar Weyne.') Hamar weyn was one of the two original quarters, or districts, of Mogadishu. The mosque was built by Sultan Said Barkash, who was a representative of the Sultan of Oman at the time the Sultans of Oman ruled the coast of Somalia.

Illustration on back: A gathering of camels, sheep, cattle and farmers at a feeding trough, representing the agricultural wealth of Somalia.

Dominant color: Orange.

100 shillings

Size: 148 x 74 mm

Illustrations on face:

a) The 'Dagahtur,' or 'stone-throwers,' Monument.

b) A female allegorical figure, carrying her baby but brandishing a gun in one hand and agricultural implements in the other.

Illustration on back: Women working in a fruit or vegetable processing plant.

Dominant color: Blue.

although each issue did not necessarily include each denomination. Each time that the notes were re-issued, the only elements on the note that changed were the signatories and the date of issue. (The decree authorizing the notes remains unchanged.) The various issues are:

Date: 1986

Signatories: Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle.

Denominations: 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 shillings.

Date: 1987

Signatories: Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle.

Denominations: 5, 10, 20, 50 and 100 shillings.

Date: 1987

Signatories: Dr. Mahmud Muhom-mad Nur and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle.

Denominations: 50 and 100 shillings.

Date: 1988

Signatories: Dr. Mahmud Muhom-mad Nur and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle.

Denominations: 50 and 100 shillings.



This series of notes was subsequently re-issued over a number of years,

The face of the reduced size 20-shilling note, with modifications similar to other notes in this series.

As the Somali economy began to collapse in the late 1980s, inflation rose and it was necessary to issue a higher denomination note. So, in 1989, when a new release of the 20-, 50- and 100-shilling notes was made, the existing denominations, which were unchanged from the preceding series except for the date, were joined by a 500-shilling note. The new note carries many similarities to the other notes in this series. It has



The 50-shilling note was introduced for the first time in this series. The face of the note depicts the ruins of an old mosque. Located in Hamarweyn (a district of Mogadishu).



The back of the 50-shilling note displays the agricultural wealth of Somalia.

the same series number, the same watermark, the same security thread and the same fluorescent feature as the other notes issued in the previous six years. The signatories remain as for the preceding issue, being Dr. Mahmud Muhammad Nur and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle. There are however, two differences. Firstly, the 500-shilling note carries a new decree, with the text on the note reading XEER MJDS 1DA JANNAAYO 1989 LR7. Secondly, the series numbers and the serial numbers of the high-denomination note fluoresce when submitted to ultra-violet light.

By 1989 the Somali economy was weakening daily and, as the situation worsened, a further supply of notes was ordered. As there was a diminishing requirement for small denomination notes, only the new 500-shilling note was ordered. The single feature that identifies the later issue of 1989 is the change in signature of the Guddoomiyaha. The later notes carry the signature of Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar.

As the situation spiralled out of control, a further issue of the

500-shilling note was made and a 1000-shilling note was introduced. The 500-shilling is in all respects the same as the second issue of 1989, except that the date of issue is 1990. The new 1000-shilling note is in a number of ways similar to the notes that preceded it, but there are some subtle changes. The design of the note is similar to the 500-shilling note and the fluorescent security thread and watermark used on this note are the same as for previous issues in this series. However, the placing of the perfect registration device changes (being split between the top and bottom of the note), the font used for the serial numbers changes (although they still fluoresce), and the fluorescent feature is changed. In place of the disc containing the coat of arms, a simple fluorescent device of the denomination, i.e. '1000,' is superimposed on the signatures. In addition, the yellow ink on the back of the note fluoresces under ultra-violet light. (This is the first time that fluorescent ink has been used on the back of a Somali note.)

Not surprisingly, a new decree authorized the issue of the 1000-shilling note. The text on the bank note that refers to the decree

reads: XEER MJDS 1DA JANNAAYO 1990 LR.10 and the date of issue is 1990. The signatories for the 500- and 1000-shilling notes continue to be Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle. Details of the two high denomination notes issued in 1989 and 1990 are.

500 shillings

Size: 148 x 74 mm

Illustrations on face: At the left, a seated fisherman is mending a fishing net, while just to the right of centre is a standing man propelling a traditional boat.

Illustration on back: The 'Masaagidka Isbaheysiga' or 'Solidarity Mosque' in Mogadishu. It is sometimes referred to as the 'Saudi Mosque,' as it was built with assistance from Saudi Arabia. The mosque is not built in the traditional style of Somali mosques, which typically have cupolas over the roof.

Dominant color: Green.

1000 shillings

Size: 154 x 76 mm

Illustration on face: Somali women weaving baskets.

Illustrations on back: An aerial view of the old port of Mogadishu at the top of the note and a panorama of the foreshore of old Mogadishu at the bottom of the note. Located one third from the left of the panorama is the Said Barkash Museum. Many of the buildings in this panorama are believed to have been destroyed during the civil war and disturbances that have wracked Somalia since 1991.

Dominant color: Orange.

By 1990, the economic crisis called



The 100-shilling note of this series displays similar changes to the other notes in this series.



The 500-shilling note was introduced into this series as inflation took hold. The face of the note shows fishermen and aspects of Somalia's marine life.



The back of the 500-shilling note depicts the 'Solidarity Mosque', which was built in Mogadishu with assistance from Saudi Arabia

for change in currency. The government acted to reform the currency by creating the New Somali Shilling, with one New Shilling being equal to one hundred old Somali Shillings. Notes in the denominations of 20 and 50 new shillings were ordered by the Central Bank. The notes are smaller in size than the notes of the previous series, but their design is reminiscent of the 500- and 1000-shilling notes of the preceding issue. The two 'onion-domed' arches, the panel at the left, and the horizontal lines in the left- and right-hand margins are similar to the 500- and 1000-shilling notes and the split perfect registration device of the Somali Star is the same as for the 1000-shilling note.

The decree authorizing their issue is referred to by the following text on the notes: XEER MJDS LR.46 18.09.1990. The date and place of issue are MUQDISHO 1991 and the signatories remain unchanged from the last notes of the previous issue,

being Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle. The denomination of each note is written in the four corners on the face and the four corners on the back of the note. On the face the denomination is written twice in Somali and twice in English, while on the back it is written twice in Arabic, once in English and once in Somali.

The serial numbers change their format on these notes. Instead of the series number and the serial number of the previous issues, these notes carry a serial number with a prefix. The prefix for each note commences at 'AA.' The serial numbers fluoresce and a new fluorescent device is used on the notes. The device is a solid block of ink, in which the denomination, i.e. 'N20' or 'N50,' is represented by the absence of ink.

20 new shillings

Size: 134 x 68 mm

Illustrations on face: A Somali man with a camel.

Illustration on back: Women harvesting cotton.

Dominant colors: Red, purple and green

50 new shillings

Size: 138 x 71 mm

Illustrations on face: A man weaving cloth at a hand loom.

Illustration on back: A woman with three children on a donkey.

Dominant colors: Light brown, dark brown and green.

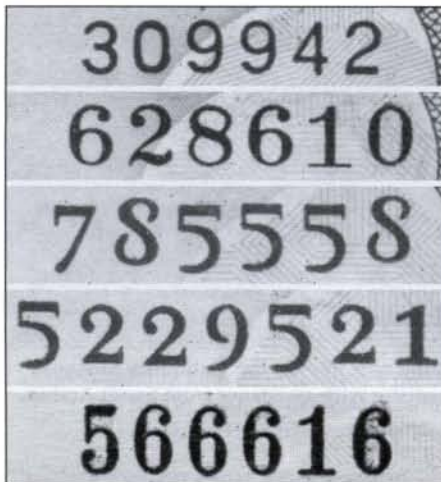
By late 1990 Somalia was in an unstable situation. On 27 January 1991 Siad Barre was thrown from office and forced to flee Mogadishu. The United Somali Congress (USC) then declared Ali Mahdi Mohamed as the interim President on 29 January. However, the USC was only one of a number of rebel movements that had been formed in opposition to Siad Barre's government and none of the other organizations were particularly pleased with the unilateral move of the USC. On 18 May the Somali



Somali women weaving baskets are depicted on the 1000-shilling bank note. This note soon became the workhorse of the Somali economy, only to become small change in a matter of ten years.



Two views of Mogadishu adorn the back of the 1000-shilling note. Many of the buildings depicted in the panorama have been destroyed during the civil war.



Five serial numbers from 1000-shilling notes, all with differing fonts or number of characters. The top example is from an original issue and the bottom is from an issue from Puntland.

National Movement (SNM) proclaimed independence for Somaliland, which is the Northern Region of Somalia that was formerly British Somaliland. While the secession of Somaliland was not recognized internationally, it was not immediately challenged to any great degree from within Somalia (although it was later engaged in struggles with southern forces).

In November 1991 a civil war broke out in Mogadishu between the supporters of Ali Mahdi and General Mohamed Farah Aided. The civil war saw an estimated 14,000 killed, 27,000 wounded, and no victor. In addition, many Somalis fled Somalia, establishing a diaspora throughout the world. It was into the madness that was Somalia in 1991 that the New Somali Shillings were delivered from the manufacturer. With no effective central government and no functioning central bank, these notes were seized by Ali Mahdi, whose army and supporters were referred to as the 'Mogadishu northern forces.' These notes have continued to circulate in the areas under the control of the northern forces.

As fighting escalated and central control of the country evaporated, control of the currency reserves also disappeared. In a very short period

of time, the Somali shilling depreciated to the point where it was worth very little. Other currencies began circulating in lieu of a stable Somali currency. American dollars, Ethiopian birr, Saudi riyals and the dirhams of the United Arab Emirates have all found a place in the Somali economy. However, the Somali shilling found a niche as small change to the foreign currencies and they remained a significant medium of exchange for small businesses, market traders and the poorer sections of the community.

From 1992 the international community, through the auspices of the United Nations, attempted to bring stability to Somalia, but to no avail. Somalia became more fragmented with warlords fighting to establish small areas of influence and independence. As the warlords fought over relief supplies and the struggle for control of specific political and economic areas, drought, famine and disease hit Somalia. An estimated 300,000 people died in this period, either directly, due to the fighting, or indirectly from starvation or disease.

Realizing that their efforts had been inadequate, the United Nations sent a multi-national force, led by the United States, to Somalia in December 1993. After a period of unsuccessful engagement, the American troops were withdrawn by 31 March 1994 and the remaining United Nations forces struggled on until March 1995. Their efforts achieved negligible results and Somalia was still a broken and disturbed nation when the United Nations forces were withdrawn.

Somalia was now divided into several spheres of influence that remained reasonably static for a number of years. Ali Mahdi Mohamed controlled areas around and to the north of Mogadishu; Mohammed Farah Aided controlled areas around and to the south of Mogadishu; Mohamed Ibrahim Egal controlled most of the former British protectorate, which had established itself as Somaliland; and Abdillahi

Yusuf established a separate administration in Puntland, the north-eastern area of Somalia. Several other areas fell under the control of competing warlords.

In 1996 Mohammed Farah Aided, still the head of one of the major forces in Somalia, placed an order for Somali shillings with the British American Banknote Company, a Canadian company based in Ottawa. Despite condemnation in Canada for the transaction, the bank notes were printed and delivered to Somalia. The deal was evidently brokered by a Malaysian businessman on behalf of Aided. However, Mohammed Farah Aided never saw the money, as he died on 1 August 1996 from wounds received during a battle in Mogadishu. Ultimately, his son, Hussein Aided, and other members of his clan received four shipments of the currency that was estimated at 165 billion Somali shillings.

The notes printed for Aided were probably in denominations of 500 and 1000 shillings, although this has not been confirmed, and they can be identified in a number of ways. Firstly, the notes carry the date '1996' at the bottom of the notes and they are signed by Ali Amalow as Guddoomiyaha. Amalow was appointed Governor of the Central Bank of Somalia in October 1990, just prior to the fall of Siad Barre, and he did not sign any 'official' notes issued by the Central Bank of Somalia. Secondly, the use of the letter 'D' as the series identifier for the 1000-shilling notes suggests that these were the notes introduced by Aided, as it can be expected that he would use the existing identifier for this series. The only known 500-shilling note issued after the fall of Siad Barre uses the same font for the serial numbers as the 1000-shilling note with the 'D' series identifier, suggesting they were printed at the same time. However, the use of 'A' as the series identifier for the 500-shilling notes does not follow the use of 'D' for the previously issued notes and therefore there is some



The face of the 20-new-shilling note depicts a man and a camel. Prepared prior to the fall of the central government, the notes were seized by one of the warring factions.



The back of the 20-new-shilling note carries an illustration of women harvesting cotton.

doubt as to whether these notes were printed for Aideed.

The bold initiative by Aideed, of issuing his own notes, did not go unnoticed by other faction leaders in Somalia. In 1999 the Puntland administration contracted printers in Indonesia to produce Somali shillings for their own use. These notes can be recognized by the different color for the number '1000' that appears in the centre of the notes. On these notes the number is purple, whereas for all other printings of this note it is green. In fact the differences are more varied, but this is the chief distinguishing point. On the original notes, there is a green, orange and purple intaglio print, but on the Indonesian-printed notes there is no intaglio printing. Instead the colors are printed by lithographic printing and areas that should have been green are printed in purple.

Following the conclusion of the Somali National Peace Conference in Djibouti on 22 August 2000, a

Transitional National Government was elected with Abdiqasim Salad Hassan chosen as president. As there had been a dozen different peace conferences over the previous ten years with no satisfactory outcome, this result looked promising. Relocating to Mogadishu, the government moved tentatively and soon the control of the government moved to businessmen who worked in concert with the politicians. One of the products of this collaboration was that the Transitional National Government became involved in importing fake bank notes to help prop up the economy. The Transitional Government imported Somali shillings from an unknown source but when it became apparent that almost anyone could have money printed and imported into the country, many business men did just that.

In February 2001 Mogadishu businessmen imported 60 billion Somali shillings into the country. In order to gain control of the economy, the

Transitional Government was forced to purchase this money from the businessmen for the cost of printing and transportation. An undertaking was also elicited from the businessmen that they would import no more money. However, later shipments of bank notes were brought into the country under the protection of the Transitional Government.²¹

Around May 2000 it was reported that Mohamed Hasan Nur, the leader of the Rahaweyn Resistance Army, had visited Italy and had arranged to have 500- and 1000-shilling notes printed in Italy and shipped to Somalia. He evidently intended that the currency would circulate in the Bay and Bakool regions of Somali, which were under his control.²² (It is not known whether these notes were actually printed and delivered.)

The importation of fake currency was not limited to the old Somali shilling. It was only a matter of time before importations of fake new shil-



Many design elements of the 50-shilling note are similar to the 500- and 1000-shilling notes previously issued by the Central Bank of Somalia. A man weaving is depicted on the face of the note.



The back of the 50-new-shilling note carries an illustration of a woman with children on a donkey.

lings began to appear and notes of this issue with a prefix commencing with 'X' are believed to be an 'un-authorized' importation. The new shillings were apparently imported by Mogadishu businessmen who probably found that there was more profit to be made in importing the higher value notes.

It is not easy to follow all the trading, importing and printing of fake Somali bank notes. Certainly, the printing of notes by the British American Banknote Company for Mohammed Farah Aided is one of the few well-documented cases of the printing of fake notes. However, many reports implicate Canada, Indonesia and Malaysia as sources of fake money without nominating the recipient or the printer. One report nominates the Indonesian company Pt. Pura Baru Kudus, located in Java, as involved in printing US\$4 million worth of Somali bank notes, but there is no indication whether they were the suppliers for the Puntland administration or for another authority. While most of the businessmen importing currency are nameless, Mohamed Abdulle Daylaaf and Hussein Goley of Mogadishu are two businessmen who have been reported as importers of fake currency.

(There is one interesting aspect to the factions circulating fake currency in Somalia. On 3 September 1998 Mohamed Said Hersi, known as 'General Morgan,' declared Jubaland independent. Jubaland is in southern Somalia, bordering on Kenya, and has as its capital Kismayo. Of all the reports concerning fake currency, none have been found in reference to the administration led by Hersi. However, his reign was short, surviving only until June 1999, and it is understood that he may not have had the finances to purchase a stock of bank notes.)

In many ways it is surprising that the importation of fake Somali shillings continues to occur. When the importation of the fake notes first occurred, importers realized a huge windfall due to the seigniorage

gained in the issuing of the currency. Seigniorage is the difference in the cost of producing the bank notes and the value of the note when placed into circulation. It was reported by some Somali businessmen that the cost of producing a 1000-shilling note was US\$0.028. In 1991 1000 shillings was worth US\$0.20 and so the seigniorage (excluding transport and storage) was US\$0.172 per 1000-shilling note. The exchange rate fluctuated over the ensuing years, but towards the end of the 1990s the rate plunged dramatically to the extent that, by 2001, a 1000-shilling note was equivalent to US\$0.0416 and, if the cost of production remained steady, the seigniorage had dropped to US\$0.0136. At some point in time, if inflation continues, it becomes unprofitable to print 1000-shilling notes. This is why 500-shilling notes are no longer printed. However, where 50-new-shilling notes are printed, it remains profitable for a much longer period.

A significant aspect to consider in regard to the distribution of fake shillings is the social and economic effect on the market into which the currency is introduced. If fake currency floods the market, it immediately devalues the currency in circulation. In Somalia, where the poor are affected, this causes distress amongst the majority of people who have lower incomes. The BBC News reported in June 1999 that two people were killed by market guards in Mogadishu after riots broke out following the importation of fake currency.²³ By this time the public of Somalia were all too aware of the economic impact of the importation of fake currency and in this instance the riot was the result of people venting their anger.

The following table gives an estimate of currency acquired, or ordered, by various parties from 1991 to 2001. (See Table 2).

So, is it possible to identify the different notes prepared for the different administrations and the

different businessmen? The answer is, not surprisingly, that it is in some cases and not in others. Firstly, of the notes prepared by various sources after 1991, it is known that there are four different 1000-shilling notes, one 500-shilling note and one 50-new shilling note. It is suspected that there are more varieties. The only positive identifying feature for most of the notes is the serial number. The different issues appear to use different letters for the series number and many use a different font for the serial number. All but one of the notes issued in Somali shillings carries the signature of Ali Abdi Amalow as the Guddomiyaha. Ali Amalow was appointed Governor in October 1990, just prior to the fall of Siad Barre and he did not sign any 'official' notes issued by the Central Bank of Somalia.

These are the known issues and an opinion on who issued them where an estimate is possible.

500 Shillings

Date: 1996

Signatories: Ali Abdi Amalow and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle

Serial number: Font A.

Known series: A

Issuer: Unknown (possibly Aided).

1000 Shillings

Date: 1996

Signatories: Ali Abdi Amalow and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle

Serial number: Font A

Known series: D

Issuer: Probably Mohammed Farah Aided, as he presumably continued to use the 'D' series, the original series identifier for this issue.

1000 Shillings

Date: 1996

Signatories: Ali Abdi Amalow and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle

Serial number: Font B

Known series: M; serial number has six numerals.

Issuer: Unknown.

1000 Shillings

Date: 1996

Signatories: Ali Abdi Amalow and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle

Serial number: Font B

Known series: F, G, N, M; serial number has seven numerals.

Issuer: Unknown.

1000 Shillings

Date: 1990

Signatories: Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle

Serial number: Font C

Known series: A

Issuer: Issued by the Puntland administration.

Note: This variety has a different color for the denomination of '1000' that appears in the centre of the note.

50 New Shillings

Date: 1991

Signatories: Dr. Omar Ahmed Omar and Hassan Elmi Barkhadle

Known series: XA, XY

Issuer: Mogadishu businessmen.

The matter of identifying all the fake currency and who issued the notes will probably never be fully described. Without access to examples of all notes, identifying the areas in which they circulated, and determining the printers of each series, the story of these issues will never be documented in full. It is to be hoped that, over time, more aspects of the notes and their issue will become known to more and more people, resulting in a better explanation of their issue.

Series Numbers

The sequence of series letters used on Somali bank notes, from the initial issues of the National Bank of Somalia to the notes issued by the Central Bank of Somalia in 1990, is a little unusual but entirely logical. There is, however, one conundrum surrounding the sequence used. The series letters used for the notes issued on the various dates are:

1962	A
1966	B
1968	B

Table 2. Currency Issued by Issuer 1991 to 2001
(in billions of Somali Shillings)²⁴

Issuing Party	Currency Issued
Ali Mahdi (including 24 billion in New Shillings)	104.0
North Mogadishu businessmen (New Shillings)	90.0
Aideed and businessmen	165.0
Transitional Government and businessmen	90.0
Puntland Administration and businessmen	86.0
Independent businessmen	60.0
Total	595.0

1971	B
1975	J
1978	T
1980	X
1981	KH
1983	D (This was used for all notes dated from 1983 to 1990)

The sequence of letters used on the bank notes, of A, B, J, T, X, KH and D, is so very similar to the Somali alphabetical sequence of A, B, T, J, X, KH and D that it appears an aberration that the positions of T and J are reversed in the sequence on the bank notes. An explanation of how the actual sequence occurred is as follows. Firstly, the Latin alphabet was used for the notes issued while the bank was still under Italian influence. This accounts for the letters 'A' and 'B,' with the 'A' used for the Italian-printed notes and 'B' for the British-printed notes. The letter 'J' was used in 1975 when the 'Somalized' notes were introduced. The letter 'J' was probably introduced because the 'abjad,' or 'numerical,' sequence of the Arab alphabet was being invoked. (Arabic is widely spoken in Somalia.) Under this sequence, the first four letters of the Arab alphabet transliterate as A, B, J, D. However, it appears that those in authority at the new Central Bank of Somalia decided to use the Somali alphabet for future issues and, for an unknown reason, they decided to utilize the unused 'T' prior to continuing the sequence of the Somali alphabet.²⁵

Endnotes

¹ *Somali National Bank – Report and Balance Sheet* for year ending 31 December 1962, Table 77, page 196.

² Data is from the *Somali National Bank Report and Balance Sheet* for year ending 31 December 1962, Table 67, page 151, and Table 77, page 196.

³ *United Nations Official Records of the General Assembly, Fifth Session – Annexes, Volume 1* 1950, New York, Agenda Item 21 page 69.

⁴ The use of the denomination *scellini* tightens the link to the East African 'shilling.' Not only are the notes of the same value, but they are issued in the same denominations, and denominated in the same unit of currency (although the Somali currency has the Italian name for 'shilling').

⁵ According to the decree under which the notes were prepared 'Elements of Arab inspiration compose the border, the ornamentation of which is the "white line" type.'

⁶ In full this is *Decreto Presidente della Repubblica 5 Marzo 1962 Numero 87*, which translates as 'Decree of the President of the Republic 5 March 1962 Number 87.'

⁷ In full this is *Istituto Poligrafico dello Stato. Officina Carte Valori-Roma*. This can be translated as 'State Printing Office. Banknote Works-Rome.'

⁸ Dr. Abdi Aden Mohamed was the first President of the National Bank. He completed his term of office on 28 February 1964, having completed 'three and a half years hard work' (*Report and Accounts* 1965).

⁹ The Kudu was also adopted as the emblem of the Somali Police Force.

¹⁰ Sheik Abdi Haji Abicar was appointed President of the Bank by President of the Republic's Decree No.75 of 29 February 1964, with the appointment taking effect from 1 March 1964 (*Report and Accounts* 1965).

¹¹ Prime Minister's Decree No.159 of 11 May 1964 appointed a new Board of Auditors with Haji Yahya Haji Abdullahi as President of the Board (*Report and Accounts* 1965).

¹² Dr. Abdullahi Ahmed Addow was appointed as President of the Bank by President of the Republic's Decree No.133 of 1968.

¹³ In full, this is *Decreto Presidente Consiglio Rivoluzionario Supremo* 20 Luglio 1971 Numero 175, which translates as 'Decree by the President of the Supreme Revolutionary Council 20 July 1971 Number 175.' The title 'President of the Supreme Revolutionary Council' was used by Siad Barre until 1976.

¹⁴ Dr. Abdurahman Nur Herzi was appointed Governor of the National Bank in March 1970 (*Annual Report and Statement of Accounts* 1970).

¹⁵ QER – Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia, Somalia No.2–1972, The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, page 23.

¹⁶ The shield is normally colored blue and has a white, five-pointed star. The colors are the same as for the Somali flag, which is in turn based on the colors of the flag of the United Nations, under whose auspices Italian Somaliland was controlled as the Trust Territory for so many years and ultimately gained independence.

¹⁷ In full, this is 'Xeer Madaxweynaha Golaha Sare Kacaanka 11kii Diseembar 1974 Lambar 134,' which translates as 'Decree by the President of Supreme Revolutionary Council, 11th December Number 134.'

¹⁸ In full this is, 'Xeer Madaxweynaha Jamhuuriyadda Dimoqaradiga Soomaaliya 6dii Diseembar 1977 Lambar 74,' which translates as: 'Decree by the President of the Democratic Republic of Somalia 6th December 1977 Number 74.' (This wording is used for all future inscriptions, with only the date and number changing.)

¹⁹ Perspicacious readers will have noted that, of the decrees referred to on the bank notes to this point, four were published in December. However, in all four clauses on the bank notes, the Somali word for 'December' is spelt differently. For the 1974 clause it is 'Diseembar,' for the 1977 clause it is 'Disembar,' for 1981 it is 'Diisambar' and for 1982 it is 'Disember.' The problem in spelling December is undoubtedly linked to the late adoption of the Latin script for Somali.

²⁰ The other instances occur in the fifth issue of the National Bank and the first issue of the Central Bank.

²¹ www.somaliawatch.org/archive-feb01/010215101.htm

²² www.banadir.com

²³ *Monetary and Exchange Rate Policies 1960–2001, The Experience of Somalia*, page 45.

²⁴ *Monetary and Exchange Rate Policies 1960–2001, The Experience of Somalia*, page 41.

²⁵ This explanation of the sequence of letters is surmised and not definitive.

China's Counterfeit Currency and Why It Is Rising

by Masahiro Tomita, I.B.N.S. #LM37

The production, circulation and seizure of counterfeit currency in China has increased sharply in recent years. The amount of seized counterfeit currency in China totaled 1.16 billion yuan (US\$140 million) in 2004, which was far above the amount of counterfeit US dollars seized in the world. The special characteristic of China's currency counterfeiting phenomenon is that it is dispersed. Counterfeits are produced at several specific areas in the country and several counterfeiting groups produce large volumes of counterfeits for distribution all over China.

On August 31, 2005, the People's Bank of China released a new version of currency into circulation to thwart the rising trend of counterfeiting. Some sophisticated counterfeit deterrent features, like an optically variable device, a magnetic security thread with a window, have been introduced in the new notes, especially in 50 and 100 yuan notes. The designs remain unchanged except some minor alterations.

International comparison

The People's Bank of China announced that the amount of seized counterfeits totaled 1160 million yuan in 2004, which was a 76.8 percent rise over 2003. Seizures and confiscations by police totaled 550 million yuan (US\$ 66.51 million), which was a 139 percent rise over 2003, and counterfeits discovered by banks totaled 610 million yuan (US\$73.76 million), which was a 45 percent rise over 2003.

According to the Bank, the amount of cash in circulation last year was 2 trillion yuan (US\$241.8 billion), therefore the counterfeits accounted for 0.05 percent of the total currency.

According to data from the US Secret Service, the amount of counterfeit dollar notes seized globally in 2003 totaled approximately US\$ 63 million, while the amount of cash US dollars in circulation in the world was estimated at US\$700 billion. Consequently counterfeit US currency amounted to 0.009 percent of the total. Although the data under review are from slightly different time frames, it is clear that the volume of counterfeit Chinese yuan was 2.2 times more than counterfeit US dollars and that the Chinese yuan's percentage of counterfeits was 5.6 times more than that of the US dollar. This is a surprising fact!

The scale of counterfeiters' activities in Japan is much smaller. According to the National Police Agency of Japan, the amount of counterfeit banknotes and coins seized last year in Japan totaled 109.35 million yen (US\$ 985 thousand), which was just equivalent to 1.29 percent of that of China and 1.56 percent of that of US. The average amount of cash in circulation in Japan last year was 76.6817 trillion yen (equivalent to 708.9 billion), so counterfeits accounted for only 0.00014 percent of the total.

The scale of counterfeiters' activities with regard to the euro is also smaller than that of Chinese yuan. The total amount of counterfeit euro notes seized in 2004 totaled 54.629 (equivalent US\$ 67.827 million). The amount of euro cash in circulation in 2004 was 452.7 billion (equivalent to US\$ 562.1 billion), therefore the counterfeits accounted for 0.012 percent of the total.

The sharp increase in the production and circulation of counterfeit currency in China has long been realized by many people in their

*To be continued in I.B.N.S.
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daily lives. According to research conducted recently in Guangzhou, China, more than 50% of the responders indicated that they had received counterfeit money. Most major retail shops throughout China have installed counterfeit-note detectors, and cashiers routinely check 100 yuan bills as soon as they are received.

Characteristics of China's currency counterfeiting

Many large scale cases of currency counterfeiting have occurred in China. In 2004, police prosecuted 28 cases in which the seized amount was over one million yuan (US\$ 121,000) each. Nineteen currency counterfeiting points throughout the country were discovered by police in 2004, which was a 157 percent rise over the previous year. The amount of seized counterfeits at the largest was 64.55 million yuan (US\$ 7.81 million).

Most currency counterfeiting cases are concentrated in Guangdong and Henan Provinces. Counterfeit currency producing sights are concentrated in the Chaozhou and Swatow regions of Guangdong Province, while trafficking and sales points are concentrated in Henan Province. Among the above-mentioned twenty eight cases where seizure totaled

over one million yuan each, nineteen cases were in Guangdong Province, which amounts to 68 percent of all.

In March 2004, police reportedly captured a truck in Henan Province based on a secret report and seized counterfeit bills of 11 million yuan (US\$ 1.33 million) at once and arrested four criminals.

The counterfeit currency produced and sold in China is not only Chinese yuan. The amount of counterfeit foreign currencies seized in 2003 (mostly US dollar notes), totaled 5.03 million dollars. Police reportedly searched a hotel in Fuchou in February 2004, and seized counterfeit dollar bills of more than 10 million dollars. Moreover, seizures by police were not just paper money. Two hundred and sixty thousand one-yuan coins were seized at a counterfeiter's workshop in Hunan Province last year.

China's anti-counterfeit currency system

It is remarkable in China that, apart from the police and the central bank authorities, a number of departments and organizations of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, the central government and the national congress also participate in the enforcement of the anti-counterfeit currency policy.

In 1994, the Chinese government drastically strengthened measures against counterfeit currency. 'The Anti-counterfeit Currency Conference of the State Council' was established that year in order to wipe out and prevent counterfeit currency. The conference then comprised nineteen departments and organizations of the Central Committee of the Communist Party and the central government. The background to the establishment of the conference was a sharp increase in currency counterfeiting. As stated below, 1994 was the year in which an enormous amount of counterfeit yuan notes were seized — these notes were mostly smuggled from Taiwan and Hong Kong due to the development of the Reform and Open-door Policy as well as the expansion of economic relations with Taiwan.

In 2003, membership in the Conference increased and it is currently composed of twenty eight departments and organizations of the party, government and the national council.

The Conference engages in a nation-wide campaign against counterfeit currency in May or June every year at the request of the State Council. Reportedly the campaign priority is being moved to rural and boundary areas, which suggests that currency counterfeiting crimes have spread to agricultural and border



areas.

The Conference designated 2005 as 'Anti-Counterfeit Currency Year' and has revealed a course of action to build a strong defense line against emerging counterfeit currency. This year's anti-counterfeit task emphasizes identifying the areas in which counterfeit currency crimes are concentrated and to concentrating power to crack down on such areas. According to the People's Bank of China, the Bank consulted with the Ministry of Public Security over the situation of spreading counterfeits and decided to take special anti-counterfeit action in Guangdong, Henan and Zhejiang Provinces.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF CURRENCY COUNTERFEITING CRIMES IN CHINA

Reform and Open-door policy as pivotal points in increasing counterfeits

It is said that the history of currency counterfeiting is as long as that of currency itself. The history of currency counterfeiting traces back to 'huizi', the first paper money of the world issued by a government, which appeared in the Song Dynasty during the twelfth century.

The People's Bank of China was established in 1948 and began to release the national currency, Renminbi, in circulation, one year before the foundation of the People's Republic of China.

In the process of establishing a socialistic planned economic system in the 1950's, major manufacturing

equipments and printing technology, including currency printing plants, were nationalized. However, supplies of most consumer commodities were insufficient and ration coupons were essential (besides cash) to access such goods. Moreover, at the time settlement of accounts in most transactions was done by regional coupons in most communities. Consequently, in the 1950s people had little motivation and few means to counterfeit currency. The third series of Renminbi bank notes, with less sophisticated printing technology, remained in circulation for twenty eight years, from 1962 to 2000 and they were popular among the people. The facts verify that there were no pre-conditions to make mass production of counterfeit currency possible and, therefore, there was no threat of counterfeit currency crime that time.

However, the Reform and Open-door Policy begun in 1979 completely changed the situation. Along with the expansion of China's external economic relations, including those with Hong Kong and Taiwan, the largest cases of counterfeit Chinese yuan production in history were revealed in China and Hong Kong by media reports in 1982. Counterfeit Chinese yuan notes of over 1.25 million yuan (US\$ 661,000), all in ten yuan notes, were reportedly seized. The total amount of counterfeits seized in that year was not announced and the full details are not known.

In 1987, the People's Bank of China released the fourth series of bank

notes into circulation, in keeping with the new era of the Reform and Open-door. The new series of bank notes were remarkable, as they were in the new denominations of fifty and one hundred yuan, and portraits of Mao Tsetung along with two other leaders appeared on the face of the hundred yuan note. However, more importantly, some new technical features were introduced in the new notes, with enhanced anti-counterfeiting properties, like watermarks and fine engravings.

However, it became clear later that the new series of bank notes could not display their ability to prevent counterfeiting. According to the incomplete statistics made public by the authorities, counterfeit notes of one million yuan (US\$ 269,000) were seized in 1989 and the amount of seizure increased ten times in 1990 to 13.68 million yuan (US\$ million).

1994, the year in which the number of seized counterfeit yuan exceeded US dollars

To cope with the increasing counterfeit currency, the People's Bank of China renewed the 50 and 100 yuan notes in 1992, which were main target of counterfeiting. The design of those notes remain unchanged, but a security thread was newly embedded in the paper.

Nevertheless, the amount of seized counterfeit currency continued to increase and the areas involved also expanded. The Foreign Exchange Certificate, the de facto convertible yuan currency, was withdrawn from circulation and





the Renminbi yuan became the sole currency in China at the beginning of 1994. Consequently, Renminbi yuan became more important and popular than ever, which resulted in further increase in counterfeits. Analysis of media reports indicate that as the result of a sharp increase in the seizure of counterfeits in China, the number of seized counterfeit Renminbi notes was supposed to have exceeded that of US dollar in 1994.

According to media reports, two large-scale Chinese yuan counterfeiting cases were discovered in Taiwan in 1994, and over 1.03 billion yuan (US\$119.51 million) of counterfeit yuan notes, including incomplete ones, were seized. According to the incomplete statistics made public by Chinese authorities, the amount of counterfeit currency seized in 1994 in mainland China totaled 130 million yuan (US\$15.08 million).

The total amount of counterfeit currency from only the two cases mentioned above was 1.16 billion yuan (US\$ 134.59 million). The number of the counterfeit notes seized was supposed to be at least 11.6 million, assuming that all those seized were one hundred yuan notes. The data from the US Secret Service indicates that the total amount of

counterfeit dollar notes seized in the world in 1994 was 287 million dollars, and that most were one hundred dollar notes. Although the amount of counterfeit yuan notes seized was far below that of dollar notes, it was supposed to be clear that the number of yuan notes seized in the year had exceeded that of the dollar notes seized globally.

The People's Bank of China released the fifth series of bank notes into circulation in 1999 marking the fiftieth anniversary of the foundation of the People's Republic of China. A significant feature was Mao Tsetung's portrait, which was printed on all the denominations of notes. However the issuance of the new series was reportedly aimed at introducing advanced technology to prevent counterfeiting and making the bank notes adaptable to cash processing machines. Twenty different types of technical features to prevent counterfeits were introduced in the new series, while just over ten features were in the former series.

It is difficult to say that even the fifth series of banknotes with advanced technical features are able to deter counterfeiting. According to the data disclosed by the People's

Bank, the total amount of counterfeits seized from 2000 to 2002 was 2.426 billion yuan (US\$293 million dollars), the annual average of which was 800 million yuan (US\$ 293 million). Although the amount seized fell to 656 million yuan (\$79.32 million) in 2003, it rose again to 1.16 billion yuan (US\$ 140 million dollars) in 2004 as mentioned above. In the first quarter of 2005, January to March, the amount of seizure totaled to 210 million yuan (US\$ 25.39 million dollars) and the individual cases with the amount of seizure over one million yuan (US\$ 120 million dollars) numbered eight.

China's counterfeit currency in the future

Circulation of counterfeit currency has been a hot topic of people's conversation and media coverage, and is worrisome. If currency counterfeiting crimes become critical again even after the new version come into wide use, it is feared that the national economy might suffer serious harm. The effectiveness of the renewal of the version and the anti-currency counterfeit drive by the authorities are matters of great concern.

Occupied Jersey and Guernsey

by Steve Feller, I.B.N.S. #4195

The British Channel Islands are excellent places to visit for the collector intrigued with how history connects to bank notes. For years, I have wanted to visit these islands and recently I spent three days in the two Bailiwicks of Jersey and Guernsey. For me the historical connection was the fact that German forces occupied these two bits of British territory during World War II. This occupation was not gentle and the islanders endured almost five years of it until their liberation occurred on VE day plus one: 9 May 1945. At least three issues of currency circulated side-by-side on the islands. I wanted to investigate these issues on the islands. Thus in early February of this year my wife and I made the journey.

The occupation began at the very end of June 1940 after Britain realized that the islands could not be defended following the fall of France. Even though they were left open they did suffer some bombing. Geographically, the islands are close to France (even as close as nine miles from Normandy). Thus, the Germans arrived without resistance.

We began our numismatic adventure on Jersey, the largest of the islands. The flight from Coventry, England (where I am living temporarily) took but one hour. After an enjoyable "Asian fusion" meal, my wife and I rested in our three-star ho-



A military parade (St. Peter Port).

German troops march in St. Peter Port, Guernsey.

tel just off the city center of St. Helier, the capital of Jersey. Next morning we walked to liberation plaza opposite the German command center, the four-star hotel *Pom d'Or*. Along the way, we walked by one of Jersey's occupation museums and noted that it would open at 10:00 A.M. Tourist information yielded the location of St. Helier's coin shop and after some shopping for pearls for my better half I easily found the shop — a wonderful eclectic place that mainly dealt with coins but had a considerable

amount of bank notes and associated artifacts as well. After I mentioned my interests, the proprietor showed me a good selection of the Jersey occupation notes. He then said that he *thought* he might have a complete set including the rare ten shilling and one pound notes and if I could stop back in a few hours he would look at home during lunch. Naturally, I agreed to return.

We next went to the occupation museum which, while interesting, did not care for its artifacts very well.



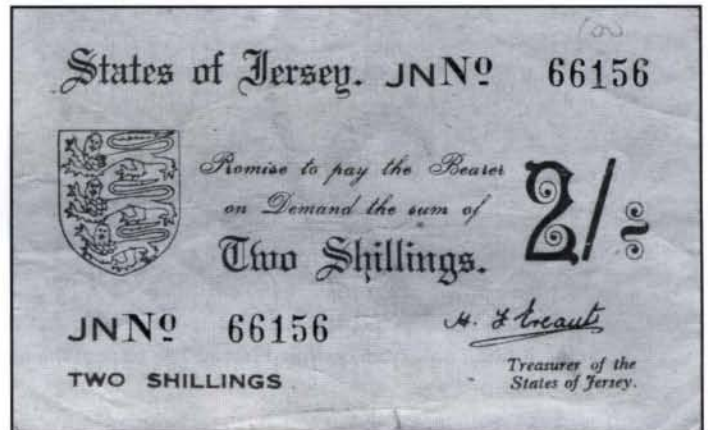
Face and back of current one pound note from Jersey.



Face and back of current one pound note from Guernsey.



Pre-WWII Note brought back to Jersey by camp inmate at Wurzbach, Germany.



Two shilling note issued in occupied Jersey.

At one point original Canadian relief supply packages were being used to prop up a display! However, the museum did have a rather large

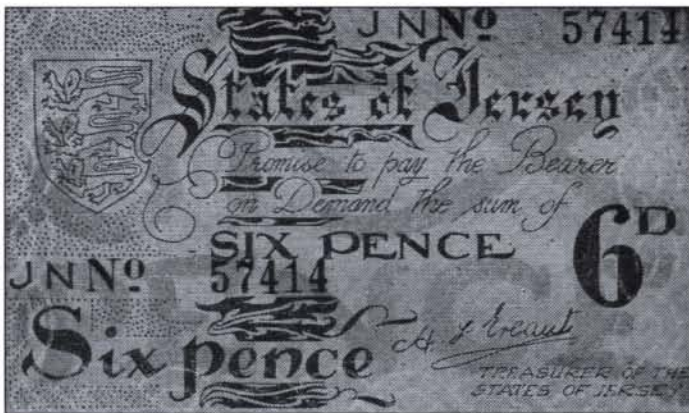
collection of monetary issues including many ration books not previously seen by me. Many digital photos later we left the museum and had

a nice lunch at a local Italian place. While walking after lunch I hailed a cab and asked the driver to take us around the island for an hour or so to see sites associated with the

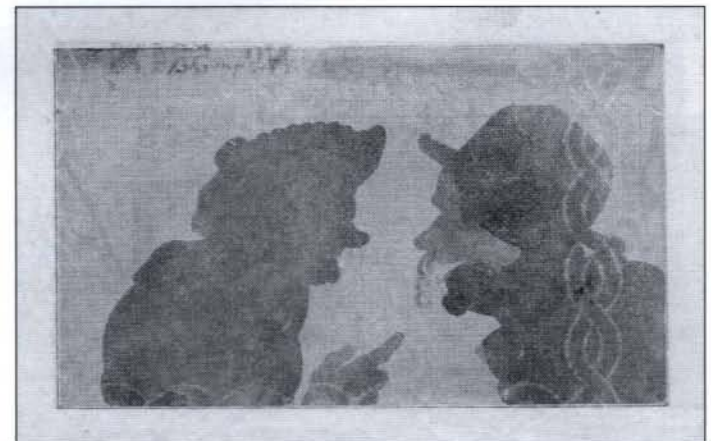


One pound note issued in occupied Jersey.





Six pence note from occupied Jersey. Note that when viewed from the side, the six pence can be seen to say "VE" — an allusion to victory in Europe.



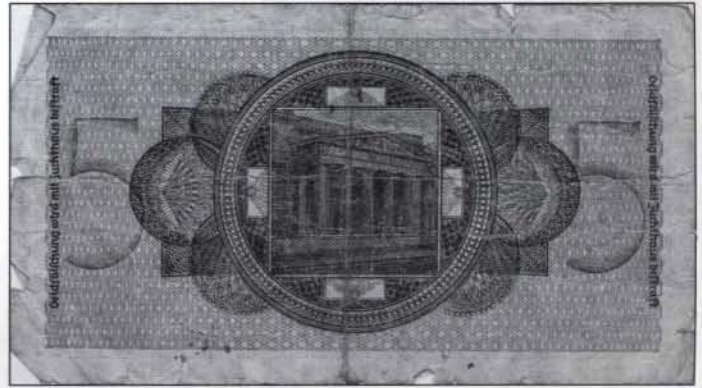
One shilling note from occupied Jersey. The back of the note is an allusion to the war-time saying "loose lips lose wars."

German occupation. The driver, a woman from England, knew the island well — it is but 45 square miles and we went to many bunkers and gun emplacements scattered among sites of splendid beauty as well. It really doesn't take much more than an hour to go all the way around. The islands are said to have been among the heaviest fortified places in Nazi-occupied Europe with many miles of underground tunnels as well. Dozens of pictures later the cab dropped my wife off for a well-earned nap at our hotel and the taxi continued on with me back to the coin shop. Of course, this is the optimal way to buy bank notes while married and soon the Feller collection had a complete set of the Jersey occupation notes. Also purchased were common German occupation notes because they were brought into the shop at the same

time as Jersey occupation notes by the locals — in other words, they were the actual German notes used on Jersey — however; the notes themselves cannot prove this. Still I paid just a few pounds for these. As a parting purchase, I obtained an original Jersey newspaper from the beginning of the occupation giving the rules for the civilian population — this was well worth an additional five pounds. Note that there were occupation marks (*reichskreditkassen*) as well as military marks (*Verrechnungsschein*) in circulation. This was the usual pattern throughout occupied Europe. The exchange rate varied during the war and was typically between 9 and 10 marks to the pound. Small exchange rate booklets were produced. The local occupation currency was produced with the permission of the Germans and was denominated in British

pence, shillings, and pounds. In the case of Guernsey an equivalent amount of British notes were withdrawn by order of the Germans and they were thus stamped that way so the Germans couldn't use them or exchange them.

The next morning we took a flight to Guernsey—we were in the air for less than 15 minutes! After checking in to Moore's Central Hotel, also three stars, we walked around the atmospheric capital of St. Peter Port. I also used an ATM machine there to get some Guernsey money. Being a Sunday our options were limited but as luck would have it the main occupation museum was open. This necessitated a cab ride of about 10 pounds—paid for in Guernsey currency for fun (they take British, Guernsey, or Jersey equally). This museum was larger and better presented than its



Face and back of 5 mark occupation marks used in occupied Guernsey and Jersey.



The Fellers in front of a German gun on Jersey.
The guns litter the island.



Six pence Guernsey occupation note from WWII.



counterpart on Jersey was. Again I saw many ration books and many examples of both Guernsey's and Jersey's occupation currency. They had all sorts of artifacts in various states of disrepair and age. As I was about to leave I bought a Guernsey occupation stamp for 95 pence. I also bought some books that were first hand accounts of the occupation. The staff person was knowledgeable about the period. I mentioned that I collect bank notes and write about them at which point he became animated and told me he would check the archives of the museum for duplicates and he even indicated they might sell some! While my bride had tea, he rummaged. How British is it to have a tearoom in an occupation

Guernsey stamp honoring the birth of Thomas de la Rue.

museum? After a long while he said he needed more time and we arranged for him to come to our hotel at 8:30 P.M. As we were looking for the bus stop to go back to St. Peter Port we met his wife, an exuberant lay reader at a local church. After a brief chat we discovered that she had spent a summer in Iowa near Cedar Rapids!

The bus brought us back to the capital and we had a nice lunch. Walking back to the hotel I did a double take when I saw the pub by the hotel was named the Thomas de la Rue! More snaps on the camera and an inquiry led to the story that this was the former home of the one and only founder of the great printing firm. When we bought Guernsey postage the stamps were de la Rue commemoratives. A nap and a nice seafood dinner brought us near to the time of our meeting with the mu-

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Pound/mark exchange values from WWII
for use in Jersey.

seum chap and his wife. Promptly at 8:30 they arrived and he suddenly remembered that he had left the crucial envelope in the car. After a few minutes he showed me the museum duplicates: Guernsey and Jersey occupation notes, but alas, he was very knowledgeable about prices. Still we made a deal on a lovely blue paper six pence Guernsey note from 1942. I should mention the Guernsey occupation notes are rarer than Jersey ones. Then he showed me an interment camp note! It was from a German camp for Jersey men sent

Pence	Pfennigs	Shillings	RM Pf
½	2	1/-	0 47
1	4	2/-	0 94
1½	6	3/-	1 40
2	8	4/-	1 87
2½	10	5/-	2 34
3	12	6/-	2 81
3½	14	7/-	3 28
4	16	8/-	3 74
4½	18	9/-	4 21
5	20	10/-	4 68
5½	22	11/-	5 15
6	23	12/-	5 62
6½	25	13/-	6 08
7	27	14/-	6 55
7½	29	15/-	7 02
8	31	16/-	7 49
8½	33	17/-	7 96
9	35	18/-	8 42
9½	37	19/-	8 89
10	39	20/-	
10½	41		
11	43		
11½	45		

£ S D	RM Pf	£ S D	RM Pf
1 10 0	14 04	6 0 0	56 16
2 0 0	18 72	6 10 0	60 84
2 10 0	23 40	7 0 0	65 52
3 0 0	28 08	7 10 0	70 20
3 10 0	32 76	8 0 0	74 88
4 0 0	37 44	8 10 0	79 56
4 10 0	42 12	9 0 0	84 24
5 0 0	46 80	9 10 0	88 92
5 10 0	51 48	10 0 0	93 60

PFENNIGS.

10	2½d	60	1 3½
20	5d	70	1 6
30	7½d	80	1 8½
40	10d	90	1 11
50	1 0½	100	2 1½

REICHMARKS. £ s. d.

1	2 1½	30	3 4 1
2	4 3½	40	4 5 5½
3	6 5	50	5 6 10
4	8 6½	60	6 8 2½
5	10 8	70	7 9 7
6	12 10	80	8 10 11
7	14 11½	90	9 12 3½
8	17 1	100	10 13 8
9	19 3	200	21 7 4
10	£1-1-4½	300	32 1 0
20	£2-2-9	400	42 14 8
		500	53 8 4

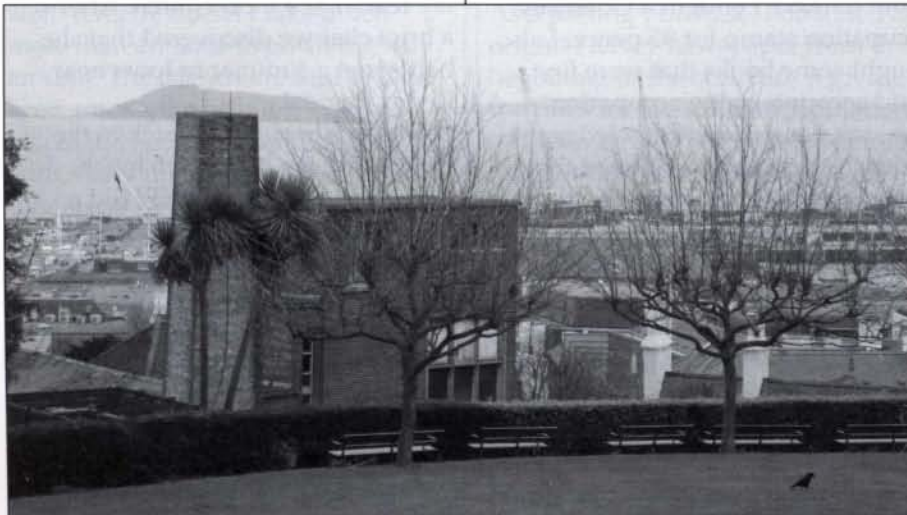
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to the mainland. I had never seen it before and it had a WWI look but still since he told me he had obtained it from an inmate and had seen but a few I asked him to scan it for me. He then asked if I had seen the other one on exhibit from yet another camp. No, I had not! Again, a request for help to him went forth. I am eagerly awaiting his informa-

tion. I also learned that the occupation money from both islands could be used on both during the war.

Next morning we did some shopping and at the post office I bought a 2005 Guernsey 5-pound coin that celebrated the 60th anniversary of the liberation. Then we were off to the Guernsey museum. To find it we stopped first at the tourist information building on the quay. There the head of the exchange bureau turned out to be a big time collector—I saw a complete set of Guernsey occupation notes well framed and upon inquiring he opened his safe he showed me quite a few more—in unc but priced 300 pounds and up. He mentioned his friend who had “more than 40000 pounds worth of the occupation notes.”

We walked up to the Guernsey Museum—lovely and well done with much bank note material. But first I digress. The museum is on a bluff overlooking the harbor and the view includes two of the other



The islands of Herm (left) and Sark (right), parts of the Baliwick of Guernsey.

islands in the Guernsey Bailiwick: Herm and Sark. How I longed to go and investigate but I couldn't arrange it because of time and the fact that this was the off-season. Sark doesn't allow motorized vehicles and they sounded super but...I did bring the book "War on Sark" with me, which is a first hand account of the occupation period with numerous mentions of the occupation and German currency as well. Back to the story. The museum had a good account of the occupation and the displays included a complete unc set of the Guernsey occupation notes and several other notes. The signage was good too. They also had a marvelous set of exhibits on the evolution of the design and printing of recent Guernsey paper money. This included original plates, proofs, artwork, etc. The museum allowed me to photograph all of this.

Afterwards I arranged a cab to take us around the island again for a bit more than an hour. This was very well done and we ended up by design at the Guernsey airport for our brief flight back to Jersey and then to Coventry. By this time I had 150 pictures from our trip. We arrived in Coventry around 9 PM. For me it was thrilling to be there to see it for myself and to learn new information. I also enjoyed calling Fred Schwan just to rub it in that I was there.

Rachel Notes

Sir Henry Parkes: Father of Federation

by Rachel Feller, I.B.N.S. #8444

In graduate school, we've now reached a scary milestone: it's time to start working on dissertations.

The theory is that, if we start early, we won't have to be as anxious by the time the things are due. Unfortunately, particularly with a group of psychologists-in-training, it's not working. Everyone is getting nervous. Well, everyone but me. Going against the grain, as I sometimes do, I am looking forward to my dissertation. Why? Because the dissertation I proposed is to study the positive psychological effects of collecting.

In honor of proposing my dissertation (yesterday, as of beginning this column) I have chosen to write about an Australian hero who is not exactly from Australia: Sir Henry Parkes. Parkes, featured on the Australian \$5 notes, was himself a collector.

Before delving into their stories, I'd like to mention that I would appreciate hearing more about collectors on banknotes. I like the idea of collecting collectors—a nice challenge while I work on my dissertation. I am aware that Freud was featured on the Austrian 50-schil-

ling note from 1986 until the Euro arrived in 2002. Freud collected statues from places he had visited in the world. Much like myself, he was a sentimental collector. Another featured collector is Queen Elizabeth II. She collects jewels. It's hard to imagine that she would have too much trouble getting hold of them, as she has money and considerable political sway, but she is a collector nonetheless.

Sir Henry Parkes, known as the "Father of Federation," was actually born in England on May 27, 1815. Although he was British, Parkes considered himself Australian, and is known for his political contributions in Australia. Parkes claimed that he was Australian, and that "Nativity is a mere accident."

Throughout his life, Parkes faced economic strains. Coming from what he called a "very limited and imperfect" education, Parkes made the most with his natural abilities and willingness to work hard. His first jobs were as a gardener and "odd-job man," shortly after he, his parents, and his six siblings moved to Birmingham. His next jobs were



Australia \$5 note with Sir Henry Parkes.

in road labor, a brick pit, and a rope-walk. Eventually, he became an apprentice bone and ivory turner.

During his life, Parkes married three times and was widowed twice. His first wife was named Clarinda Varney, and the two were married July 11, 1836, when Clarinda was 23 and Parkes was 21. The next year, Parkes tried to begin his own business, but met with failure, so the young couple moved to London to find better work. At the time, they survived on the money Parkes made by selling his tools. Already very interested in politics, Parkes was struck with the contrast between how hard he was willing to work and how little success he had experienced. Eventually, they decided to seek their fortunes elsewhere. Before leaving England, Parkes published a poem entitled "A Poet's Farewell" in Hetherington's *Charter*. In it, he said that it was the injustice in England that meant men like he were "compelled to seek the means of existence in a foreign wilderness." The two boarded a ship for that wilderness, New South Wales, in 1839.

At first, Parkes and his wife lived in the bush, but again they met with difficulties. Thus, the two moved to Sydney. Here, Parkes met William Duncan, a journalist and publisher, who proved to be a valuable friend. Duncan supported Parkes' interest in politics, as well as his poetry. Duncan began publishing Parkes' poems in his newspaper, *Weekly Register of Politics, Facts, and General*

Literature.

Parkes joined socially with the literary men. He also followed their tradition of working for Customs, a job which meant financial security while working short hours, so that artists could continue to pursue their creative ambitions. Thus, from 1840 to 1845, Parkes became accomplished in two areas. First, he learned a considerable amount about the market economy in Australia, as he had spent five years aboard import/export ships. This exposed him to the intricacies of tariff regimes and border controls. Second, he was able to spend time writing and learning about the politics of Australia. These two together led to his passion toward turning Australia into a federation.

In 1845, Parkes was suspended by the Customs House. Earlier, he had printed an anonymous letter in Duncan's newspaper, in which he made accusations against corruption in the Customs House. He argued that this was the only way to get the right people to pay attention to the problems, but this reasoning was not enough to save his job. However, Parkes said goodbye to the Customs House with feelings of hope, especially because he had gained so much political ambition.

In 1848, Parkes was an active and vital participant in a campaign for universal male suffrage. He also worked to prevent transportation of convicts from England to New South Wales. By 1850, he had established a

newspaper, *The Empire*, to promote democracy. He continued to push for many different reforms.

Parkes' first political position was a seat in the Legislative Council, which he won by election in 1854. He was also part of the Legislative Assembly, which served as Australia's first Parliament under self government.

This was the start of a long political career. Parkes became the Premier of New South Wales. By 1873, Australians knew he was going to become part of their legacy and history. The town Bushman's renamed themselves Parkes as an honor to Parkes' continued support of important issues.

Parkes also continued to be controversial. In particular, he aroused considerable debate over his Public Instruction Act in 1880. In 1887, he tried to have New South Wales renamed Australia, but was unsuccessful.

The following year, Parkes opened Centennial Park, which was to be, according to Parkes, "emphatically the people's park." Although he was unable to fulfill all of his dreams for the park—the inclusion of an art gallery and mausoleum, for instance—he was able to establish a park that continues to be used and beloved by Australians today. The park is also shown on the \$5 bank note. On the right-hand side is the Federation Pavillion, which was a pivotal place during Australia's 1901 celebration in which they declared that they were the Commonwealth of Australia.

The final chapter in Parkes' political career began in 1889, when Parkes began to push for Federation. His slogan was "One People, One Destiny," and he expressed the importance of having an independent federal parliament and federal government. This first speech was delivered at Tenterfield School of Arts, and was known as the Tenterfield Oration. The Tenterfield School of Arts building is featured on the front of the \$5. Parts of the Tenter-



Opening of the First Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia (1901), a painting by Tom Roberts.



Henry Parkes, esq., carried in triumph to the "empire" office (1854).

field Oration also appear, in micro-printing, as a security feature on the note.

In March, 1891, the first meeting of the National Australasian Convention took place. 45 delegates were present, and they voted to appoint Parkes as president. Thus, under Parkes, the delegates drafted what would become a new constitution.

Unfortunately, Parkes did not live to see his plans to fruition. He passed away in April, 1896, a year before the Australasian Federation Convention. Although Parkes wasn't able to see his dream of a federally governed Australia, it is in his honor that the



Painting of Henry Parkes by J. H. Chinner (National Library of Australia).



Henry Parkes (standing with white beard) with some founding fathers of Australia.

Federal Parliament meets in a suburb in Canberra named Parkes.

Also featured on the note is a painting of Australia's first Parliament, a 1903 Tom Roberts painting entitled *Opening of the First Parliament of the Commonwealth of Australia* by HRH The Duke of Cornwall and York (Later King George V), May 9, 1901. Tom Roberts also created the painting that was the basis for the main image on the note—a portrait of Parkes himself, with his trademark beard and intensely ambitious eyes.

The first Commonwealth Parliament of Australia took place in the Royal Exhibition Building in Melbourne, which is also pictured on the \$5 note. This was the site of Parliament meetings until the Parliament House was opened in 1927 in

Canberra.

A.W. Martin wrote a brief biography of Parkes in the *Australian Dictionary of Biography*. In it, he discussed Parkes' daunting presence, beard, and his interest in collecting: "Bearded after 1861, he was always physically impressive, though imposing rather than handsome. For studied oratory he had few peers among colonial contemporaries, despite his uncertainty about aspirates and a tendency towards affectation. He collected autographs, books and artistic bric-a-brac, and his friends were always intrigued by his choice menagerie of native wild animals. Though temperate, he enjoyed champagne and had, as William Walker had it, great faith in the virtue of gastronomy as a political force."

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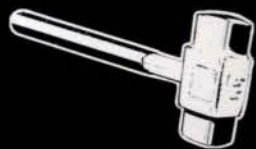
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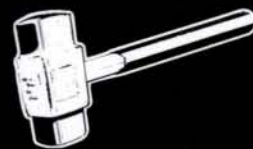
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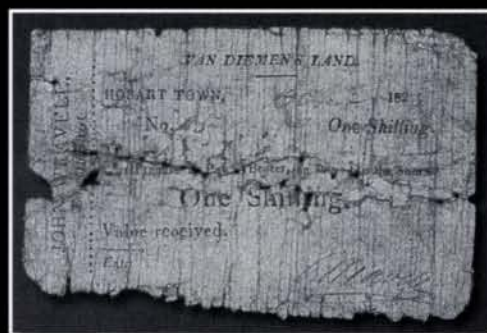
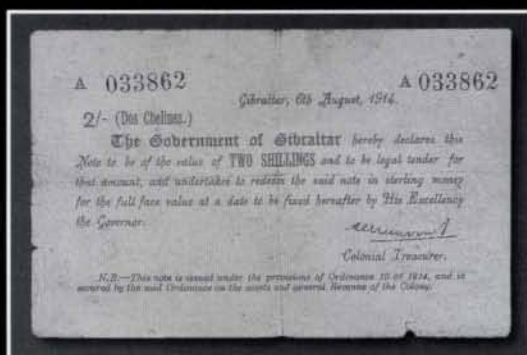
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